Writing for change: Persuasion across the school years

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Declaration

I certify that this thesis is my original work towards the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. To the best of my knowledge, due reference has been made to all information sources and literature used in this thesis, as well as to any material previously published or written by another person. This thesis does not incorporate without appropriate acknowledgements any material previously submitted for another degree.

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Abstract

This thesis is about young people and their attempts to persuade others. It explicates valued language choices in the highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN writing test.

In the new Australian Curriculum: English, persuasive writing is expected to be taught from Year 1, and this form of writing becomes increasingly prominent as students progress from primary to secondary school and beyond. As a result, research into valued persuasive genre and language choices in educational settings has been skewed to the upper secondary and tertiary levels. While educational linguists like Frances Christie and Beverly Derewianka have outlined the sorts of language choices primary school students can make to meet the social purposes of a range of genres, how they structure texts and use resources of language specifically to persuade others remain unknown.

Fuelled by a high-stakes national testing program, the pressure to support students to produce cogent arguments has never been greater in Australia, and knowledge about valued genre and language choices in the primary and secondary years would provide educators with clarity and direction to achieve this. Beyond the needs of the curriculum, there are many benefits in helping young people to understand the use of persuasive writing in sustaining democratic rights and freedoms in Australia. A majority of young

Australians lack interest in and understanding of Australia's political system, and are not actively engaging in democratic practices at a grassroots level. With much persuasive writing instruction in Australian schools focusing on NAPLAN-like tests that are disconnected from authentic, real-world issues facing students, there is much potential to reinvent how we engage young people in persuasive discourse.

This study features the creation of an analytical frameworks composed of systems and principles from classical rhetoric and systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to unpack students' genre and language choices from two perspectives. High scoring texts from each year level that completed the 2011 NAPLAN test are unpacked at the levels of genre and discourse to make visible the valued choices in their writing.

The study's findings suggest ways that educators can better prepare students to think and write persuasively. A range of frameworks are provided that map the increasing complexity of students' persuasive genre and language choices across primary and secondary school years, highlighting the sorts of rhetorical strategies deemed by markers to warrant high scores. The study has been designed to assist educators and researchers to promote and analyse the production of high quality persuasive texts for authentic purposes.

Acknowledgements

Much can change in a short space of time. When the first words of this thesis were being written a little over three years ago, I was an almost unrecognisably different person. 2011 Damon was young in most ways. He was newly married, newly graduated, and gleefully oblivious to the vicissitudes of life just waiting to pounce. He also had far too much energy. Since then, most things have changed. 2014 Damon is still happily married, though he now refers to himself as an experienced husband. The University of Tasmania decided he was no longer entitled to a student card when they gave him a job as a Lecturer in English. Plus, those vicissitudes finally caught up with him.

The year 2013 began in trying circumstances when my darling wife Anna was told she required major surgery in Melbourne. Fortunately this went well, *so well* in fact that a few short weeks later we found out she was pregnant! Just three months into my new career as a lecturer our beautiful baby boy Henry came into the world. This explains why I no longer have energy. There is nothing quite as strange and otherworldly as writing about bizarre concepts like *polysyndeton*, *procatalepsis*, and *epanalepsis* when you've been awake most of the day and night, but this was reality for three months while Henry learnt how to sleep. Thankfully he appears to be a fast learner, and the second half of his six months on the planet have been nothing but joy, wonder, and amusement. A lot of things have certainly changed, and through it all I have had the great pleasure of relying on a small number of incredibly special people.

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Losing a student card, learning what it takes to be an experienced husband, starting a new career, and becoming a first-time dad are all experiences that require a lot emotionally, and so I am remarkably thankful to

my close family and friends for the time they spent keeping me standing. My beautiful wife Anna has stood firm beside me every step of this journey. Her love and encouragement has carried me through many difficult moments, and taught me there are no limits to how much a person can care for you. I will never forget what she's sacrificed to see me reach this point, and I am immeasurably happy that I can share all my journeys with her. I must also thank my mother Mairead, father Damon, brother Tristan, sister Tussy, stepmother Liz, mother-in-law Jenny, father-in-law Geoff and brother-in-law Matthew for all the love and support throughout the years. You must all be so pleased to hear there will be no more complaining about that PhD! My good friends Steve and James have also endured many rhetorical and NAPLAN-laden conversations, so a big thanks must go to them too. As a Christian I also acknowledge my God, who has gently guided me through the many ebbs and flows of life to this point.

Ultimately, this thesis is dedicated to the young people whose work is represented in its pages. I have spent the last three and a half years reading, re-reading, analysing, scrutinising, dissecting, and dividing their impressively complex, hilariously entertaining, and surprisingly persuasive texts. Every year we ask our young people to write in this way, but it's only by taking the time to read and unpack their work that we can fully appreciate how talented they are. At the end of this journey I believe more than ever in the crucial importance of

teaching our young people to be effective persuasive writers, and it is my deepest hope that this work will help us to do so.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

1 - Introduction

1.0 - The Significance of Persuasive Writing

Persuasive language is the language of power (Martin, 1989). Those who have the ability to write persuasively can actively participate and access power in democratic societies. "The literate, educated person is expected to be able to articulate a position on important matters so as to persuade others" (Crowhurst, 1990, p. 349). This is fundamentally how democratic societies function and evolve, as opposing parties attempt to persuade the voting public about the way life is and should be. Language plays a key role in this process, which is why any study into power and democratic governance should also involve the study of language (Lukin, 2014).

Learning to write persuasively is a "democracy sustaining approach to education" (Hess, 2009, p. 5). The present study was motivated by the potential impact of young people gaining such writing skills. When they learn to write persuasively, their voices can be articulated with greater clarity, purpose and effect (Corbett & Connors, 1999); their social justice aims can be realised more effectively (Humphrey, 2008; Kerkham & Comber, 2013); and with time, their communities can more easily be renewed and reinvented as literacy achievement affords civic activism (Donehower, Hogg, & Schell, 2011; Green & Corbett, 2013). Possessing the ability to write persuasively "empowers young people to express an opinion, be involved in decision making and be critical users of the English language" (Department of Education and Children's

Services, 2011, p. 1). It allows them "to acknowledge, construct and negotiate social relations" (Hyland, 2004, p. 196), and "respond critically to the rhetorical efforts of others in both oral and written forms" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 25). Equipping young people to make valued persuasive genre and language choices is a complex challenge facing all primary and secondary school teachers in Australia, yet this is a necessary goal if they are to engage with and influence issues that are meaningful to them and their communities.

This study explores valued persuasive genre and language choices made by high achieving primary and secondary school students in one context. It seeks to describe the linguistic resources used by these students to engage and persuade readers, and shows how contextual features of a standardised testing program positioned them to make such choices. This chapter describes the current status of persuasive writing instruction in Australian schools, and voices local and national concerns about the impacts of the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy tests (hereafter NAPLAN) on teaching programs and student wellbeing. The study's research design is then outlined, followed by the organisation of the thesis.

1.1 - Persuasive Writing in Australian Schools Today

The Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a) emphasises the importance of persuasive writing instruction with Year 1 students taught to differentiate between features of persuasive and other texts, and Year 2 students expected to write persuasively for the first time. While imaginative texts like

narratives receive the greatest focus of instruction in the early years, each subsequent year features a greater emphasis on persuasive writing, peaking in Year 10 when more than two thirds of English-related tasks involve the development of persuasive language skills (ACARA, 2011a). The ability to construct effective arguments supported by relevant evidence is a critical skill for success in the later years of high school, college and university across almost every discipline (Newell, Beach, Smith, & VanDerHeide, 2011). In her writing about the academic registers students are expected to present information and interact with others in at school, Schleppegrell (2004a, 2013) maintains that argumentation is essentially the most important means of assessing later school learning. Persuasive language is important in school settings not only for the affordances of conveying arguments, but also for the building of knowledge valued in school contexts. Yet despite its prominence in the curriculum—which reflects such thinking—research over the past 30 years has shown many students struggle with the complex demands of persuasive writing (Martin, 1989).

Those learning to write persuasively often find it difficult to demonstrate appropriate reasoning, countering and rebuttal skills (McCann, 1989). They often cannot produce relevant, supporting evidence (Kuhn, 1991), or identify and use effective persuasive text structures (Chambliss & Murphy, 2002; Freedman & Pringle, 1984). It appears that literary success with persuasive writing is often only experienced by particular, elite students (Bernstein, 1996;

Rose, 2004), which is problematic when it represents a crucial element of academic success at school and acceptance into university (Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Schleppegrell, 2004a). The gap between those who do and do not enjoy this success has been emphasised in the findings of the annual NAPLAN writing test for a number of years.

1.1.1 - NAPLAN.

To assess how proficiently Australian students write persuasive texts – in addition to other literacy and numeracy tasks – the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (hereafter MCEETYA) instigated the NAPLAN tests in 2008. The annual NAPLAN tests are national assessments of all Australian students in Years 3, 5, 7, and 9, and includes reading, writing, language conventions (spelling, grammar and punctuation) and numeracy components (ACARA, 2011b). An underlying purpose of the NAPLAN tests is to determine whether students are being adequately prepared for life after school by Australian education systems (ACARA, 2011b), and its results are used by Australian governments, education authorities, schools, teachers and parents to assess young people's literacy and numeracy skills as they develop towards participation in the community as adults.

> The tests provide parents and schools with an understanding of how individual students are performing at the time of the tests. They also provide schools, states and territories with information about how education programs are working and which areas need to be prioritised for improvement. (ACARA, 2011b, para. 3)

Yet despite these goals, the NAPLAN tests have raised a series of national and local concerns regarding the students who are most and least likely to experience success, and negative impacts the tests have had on schools, their teaching programs and their students. These concerns are now outlined in turn.

1.1.2 - National Concerns.

The 2011 NAPLAN National Report (ACARA, 2011c) highlighted how many Australian students struggled with the persuasive writing task. The report stated that regardless of year level, "children from remote areas, from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and of Indigenous backgrounds tended to perform less well on all measures of educational achievement" (p. 63). Conversely, the report found that students most likely to succeed were: female; those who attended metropolitan schools; those whose parents were employed at the time in senior management positions or who were qualified professionals; and those whose parents had completed a Bachelor degree (ACARA, 2011c). Martin's (1985) research into persuasive writing instruction highlights that such trends have been in place for at least the past 30 years. Martin (1985) stated:

> Bright middle-class children learn by osmosis what has to be learned. Working-class, migrant, or Aboriginal children, whose homes do not provide them with models of writing, and who don't have the coding orientation to read between the lines and see what is implicitly demanded, do not learn to write effectively. (p. 61)

This is not a new issue. Despite the affordances of contemporary education programs, the sorts of students most likely to struggle with persuasive writing three decades ago appear to be the same sorts of students who are struggling today.

1.1.3 – Local Concerns.

Concerns about literacy achievement are particularly high in Tasmania, where this study is based. In 2013, half of all Tasmanians aged between 15 and 74 were described as functionally illiterate, for struggling to read and draw low level inferences from texts (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Compared to all other Australian states and territories, Tasmanian students are the most likely to leave school in Year 10 (aged 16), and in 2013, only 43.7 per cent of Tasmanian 18 year olds attained a Year 12 certificate (Tasmanian Qualifications Authority, 2014). From the NAPLAN data, 20.2 per cent of 15 year old Tasmanians failed to achieve the Australian national minimum standard of English for Year 9 students, compared to a lower national rate of 16.8 per cent (ACARA, 2012). Such literacy outcomes correlate with civic, economic, and democratic deficits in Tasmania also, which ranks "at the bottom among

Australian states on virtually every dimension of economic, social, and cultural performance" (West, 2013, p. 50), including the lowest incomes, poorest longevity, and highest rates of chronic disease, smoking, obesity and youth unemployment (Brotherhood of St. Laurence, 2014). While Tasmanian schools and teachers cannot be expected to resolve these intergenerational problems, the education they provide can meaningfully enhance young people's life chances, and teaching them to produce and interpret persuasive texts is a key aspect of this.

1.1.4 - The Gap between More and Less Successful Students.

Since persuasive writing became the focus of the NAPLAN writing test in 2011, Australian teachers have spent a large proportion of time teaching students how to write persuasively (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012). Yet the annual NAPLAN reports have indicated little improvement in how young people construct these texts, and in many cases the rates of achievement are actually decreasing (ACARA, 2011c, 2014). Try as they may, many Australian educators are struggling to lift their students' writing standards, which can be explained by a number of factors. Studies from a range of fields have attempted to explain the gap between students who are more and less likely to succeed with persuasive writing, laying the blame on: inadequate persuasive writing instruction (Hillocks, 2010; Freedman, 1996; Felton & Kuhn, 2001; Langer, 1992); students' confusion about the requirements of effective persuasive texts

(Crammond, 1998; Durst, 1999; Felton & Herko, 2004; Graff, 2003; Kuhn, 2005); and on school systems that advantage particular groups of students over others (Bernstein, 1990, 1996; Rose, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2007). These notions are now explored in more detail, beginning with the complexity of persuasive writing instruction.

1.1.4.1 - The complexity of persuasive writing instruction.

"Teaching argumentation is complex and demanding" (Newell et al., 2011, p. 277). There are numerous persuasive genres that serve different purposes (Coffin, 2004; Humphrey, 1996; Martin, 1989) and persuasive texts can take many forms, including essays, debates and advertisements (Freedman, 1996). As such, the complexities of persuasive writing make the task of teaching it more challenging than other forms of writing. According to Felton and Herko (2004), teachers have not traditionally provided students with enough opportunities to write persuasively; they have not recognised the persuasive skills already possessed by students; they have not drawn on students' experiences in oral argumentation; and therefore struggled to help them understand the structures of written persuasion. Several studies in the United States have reported educators are not teaching students to think deeply; to address issues broadly across numerous subject areas; or to reason about what and why they write (Applebee et al., 1990; Boyer, 1983; Langer et al., 1990; Mullis & Jenkins, 1990). In Australia, research has highlighted the sorts of persuasive genre and language choices that are valued in secondary school

writing (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Christie, 2012), yet little research has investigated persuasive language choices made by primary school students. This makes it difficult for primary school teachers to know the specific choices to focus on in their teaching.

Persuasive writing instruction is also commonly removed from authentic issues that interest students (Kuhn & Crowell, 2011; Sanborn, 1994). Instead, it is often highly ritualised, with "a single-minded emphasis on structure [that] has diverted our attention from questions of style and rhetoric, audience and purpose, critical literacy and reflection" (Gyenes & Wilks, 2014, p. 10). Teaching the generic structures of persuasive texts without the discourse level language features makes persuasive writing a tedious learning experience for students, and limits their expressiveness (Andrews, 1995). In many Australian schools, persuasive writing has become "a generic test of content knowledge, and we are consequently in danger of losing . . . a series of skills that stretch from reflectiveness, through dialogue and critical literacy, to meaningful engagement with public issues" (Gyenes & Wilks, 2014, p. 7). Indeed, there is much potential to consider and promote authentic persuasive writing practices in school contexts that support effective education for citizenship (Humphrey, 2008, 2013), rather than learning this form of writing outside meaningful contexts. While the studies mentioned in this section have to some degree attributed the gap in students' success to difficulties faced by teachers, what they fail to address is how some students remain very successful persuasive writers.

1.1.4.2 - The complexity of persuasive writing.

Other studies have attributed the gap to the notion that less successful students simply struggle with important aspects of persuasive writing. For instance, Felton and Herko (2004) suggested that secondary school students often construct arguments that do not feature the elaborations found in more successful persuasive texts. Furthermore, they stated that while young writers might acknowledge alternative perspectives, they do not always address them with counterarguments or rebuttals, which represented a common finding of other studies (e.g., Crammond, 1998; Golder & Coirier, 1994; Knudson, 1992). "Without these elaborations of argument, adolescents' persuasive essays are left one-sided, poorly supported, and open to critique" (Felton & Herko, 2004, p. 673). The authors implied that the effectiveness of a persuasive text can be in part attributed to the author's ability to engage with supporting and alternative perspectives. This issue is particularly frustrating for teachers because many students can engage in sophisticated oral persuasion (Felton & Kuhn, 2001), yet lack the ability to translate this into successful persuasive writing. By 9 years of age, most students can create oral claims that support conclusions and counter alternative perspectives in familiar contexts (Felton & Herko, 2004), and by early adolescence their conversations feature qualifications, reservations, counterarguments and rebuttals. Felton and Herko (2004) stated:

> When engaged in conversation, adolescents produce the very elements of elaborated argument that seem to be missing from their written essays …

> because the very process of interactive argument requires them to supply argumentative elaborations to support and qualify their claims. (p. 673)

Beyond these difficulties, less successful students often lack the ability to write persuasively for different audiences or an understanding of why they are being taught this form of writing (Berland & Reiser, 2009). This is fuelled by the reality that "in most typical classrooms, the true audience for the work is the teacher, who will evaluate whether the student has demonstrated understanding" (Berland & Reiser, 2009, p. 49). Less successful students often see the task of persuasive writing as completing an assignment for their teacher, and simply side with the perspective they believe their teacher holds (Beck, 2006). While this may allow them to meet the requirements of certain classroom settings, these students are unlikely to translate their understandings of persuasive writing into active citizenship beyond schooling. While studies such as these emphasise persuasive language choices that less successful students struggle to make, they do not explain why students lack this ability in the first place.

1.1.4.3 - A system of perpetuated inequality.

Schools commonly attribute success or failure on literacy tasks to students' ability levels, "which [are] assumed to originate either in learners' biology, or in their family or cultural backgrounds" (Rose, 2006, p. 2). In direct opposition, Bernstein (1996) described this attribution as a myth used by schools to "individualize failure and legitimize inequalities" (p. 7). From this

perspective, the most successful students are those best prepared for the pervasive bottom-up approaches to teaching language skills found in most schools, by spending 1000 hours or more learning about reading with their parents before attending school (Bergin, 2001). These students enter the school environment with a distinct advantage over those who do not undergo the same preparation, and this inequality is then perpetuated by the school system (Bernstein, 1996; Rose, 2004). Rose (2004) explained:

> Each stage in the literacy development sequence assumes and evaluates orientations to written ways of meaning that are acquired in previous stages. So practices across the secondary school curriculum implicitly assume and evaluate orientations acquired in upper primary, and practices in middle-upper primary assume and evaluate orientations acquired in early school years, which in turn assume and evaluate orientations to written meanings acquired through parent-child reading before school. (p. 3)

At each stage of schooling, students are evaluated for the skills that should have been attained at the previous stage, meaning children who enter school without careful preparation by parents are kept behind by the school system. Each stage of schooling "prepares successful students with the skills they will need for the next stage, but after the early years the skills they need are not explicitly taught, but are learnt tacitly by those students who are adequately prepared to do so" (Rose, 2006, p. 3). Bottom-up approaches to teaching

language assume "language is learnt by studying and remembering lower level components of the language system, before applying them in reading and writing tasks" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 3). Students who succeed with such approaches do so by tacitly learning additional skills, such as the ability to identify and apply written language patterns in texts.

Explicit teaching of effective persuasive language choices would remove the guesswork from persuasive writing for less successful students, yet explicit teaching relies on deep understandings of the language choices that are most appropriate in a given context. Students who have not been prepared for the demands of school by their parents may be taught about broad genre structures and/or grammatical features that compose them, yet there still remains a lack of access to the evaluative and rhetorical language choices that are highly valued in the writing of the most successful students. If Australian teachers develop an expanded knowledge of language—and more particularly knowledge of discourse semantic and rhetorical resources—this would help to disrupt the cycle of perpetuated inequality regarding the teaching of persuasive writing.

To this point, research into persuasive writing has focused heavily on the language choices of secondary school students (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Coffin, 2000, 2004; Derewianka, 2007; Humphrey, 1996, 2008), university students and academics (Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Hao & Humphrey, 2012; Hood, 2004a, 2004b, 2006, 2010, 2012; Lee, 2006; Schleppegrell, 2004a, 2013; Swain, 2007, 2010; Wu, 2007), journalists (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1995;

Mugumya, 2013; Richardson, 2007; Van & Thomson, 2008; White, 2006) and politicians (Miller, 2002, 2004), and much of this research—particularly regarding academic writing and media discourse—will be explored in later sections of this thesis. While there are useful descriptions of primary and lower secondary school students' valued genre and language choices for numerous kinds of writing (see Christie & Derewianka, 2008), little attention has been given to their persuasive writing practices. While the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a) and NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) outline many language choices that typify persuasive discourse, these documents do not distinguish between the sorts of choices valued at specific year levels, relative to students' writing development. In addition there is an overreliance in contemporary Australian classrooms on either broad genre structures (for example the stages of core text types), or the grammatical patterns that they compose, while not enough emphasis is placed on the role of discourse semantics and particularly patterns of language that create evaluative stance in persuasive texts (though see Coffin, 1997, 2003 for some exceptions to this). Lastly, there is a paucity of research into the role of classical rhetorical concepts in successful argumentation in the primary and secondary school year levels, despite the positioning of teachers by the NAPLAN support materials to emphasise these concepts in their classroom teaching.

1.2 - Research Design

To address these theoretical and practical concerns, this study aims to:

- explore young people's persuasive writing through two complementary theoretical perspectives that are prominent in the *Australian Curriculum: English* and *NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide*;
- investigate what connects and separates these theoretical perspectives in their foregrounding of persuasive language choices, and consider how they might work together to foster more effective persuasive writing in contemporary primary and secondary classrooms;
- describe how one testing program positioned students to make particular persuasive language choices;
- make visible valued genre and language choices in high scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students;
- provide a balanced, in-depth approach to teaching and analysing students' persuasive writing;
- generate persuasive writing frameworks that compare these valued genre and language choices across year levels.

It will achieve these aims by addressing the following research questions. These questions concern persuasive texts written by Tasmanian Year 3, 5, 7 and

9 students (two from each year level) who scored highly on the 2011 NAPLAN persuasive writing test:

1. How did the 2011 NAPLAN context position young people to make particular choices in their writing?
    a. How were students positioned to make persuasive genre choices?
    b. How were students positioned to make language choices at the level of discourse?
2. What choices were valued in the highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test?
    a. What persuasive genre choices were valued?
    b. What language choices were valued at the level of discourse?
    c. What are the practical and theoretical implications of these findings?

To address these research questions, principles of classical rhetoric and SFL are used to analyse: first, the 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking criteria and testing procedures are analysed using principles of classical rhetoric and SFL (See Chapter 6); and second, high scoring texts written for the 2011 NAPLAN test by Tasmanian primary and secondary students (See Chapter 7). The texts are analysed at the levels of genre and discourse using an analytical framework composed of five lenses drawn from the traditions of classical rhetoric and Systemic Functional Linguistics. While the valued genre and language choices

highlighted through this process may not characterise those valued in other contexts, the method of analysis can be applied to any persuasive text to ascertain how the writer attempted to persuade readers. In addition, the thesis establishes the connection of genre pedagogy with making visible the linguistic resources that construe culturally valued genres such as persuasion, and brings further evidence to support its success in relation to persuasive writing.

1.3 - Overview of Chapters

- Chapter 1 has introduced the study by broadly outlining the theoretical and practical issues that motivated its research design. Two core research questions have been posed to address the aims of the study.
- Chapter 2 represents the first of three theoretical foundations chapters, focusing specifically on research literature related to persuasive writing from the perspective of classical rhetoric.
- Chapter 3 is the second theoretical foundations chapter, focusing on persuasive writing and its instruction from the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics.
- Chapter 4 is the third and final theoretical foundations chapter, and focuses on links between the two theoretical perspectives introduced in Chapters 2 and 3.
- Chapter 5 outlines the methodological design of the study. It proposes an analytical framework of five lenses drawn from theory introduced in

Chapters 2 and 3. This framework is designed to analyse young writer's persuasive texts from two perspectives. Chapter 5 also outlines how high scoring persuasive texts written by students in four year levels of primary and secondary school were obtained for the purposes of this study.

- Chapter 6 describes how the high scoring texts featured in this study were bound by the limitations of the context in which they were written. To better understand these limitations, a range of contextual features of the 2011 NAPLAN writing test are analysed in this chapter.
- Chapter 7 makes visible the genre and language choices valued in eight high scoring persuasive texts, written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test.
- Chapter 8 discusses the findings of the analyses of context and texts in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. It maps out valued genre and language choices for each of the five lenses that make up the analytical framework in table form.
- Chapter 9 concludes the study by summarising its key findings, listing its contributions to theory and practice, and suggests directions for further important research in this area.

2 - Theoretical Foundations: Classical Rhetoric

2.0 - Introduction

This study seeks to determine valued persuasive genre and language choices made by high achieving primary and secondary school students for a standardised writing test. It also investigates how this test positioned students to make these language choices. The following three chapters outline the theoretical foundations of the study by exploring traditional and contemporary approaches to persuasive writing and its instruction, with Chapter 2 focusing on classical rhetoric, Chapter 3 focusing on SFL, and Chapter 4 focusing on links between these linguistic traditions[1]. This chapter begins by introducing classical rhetoric as a model of five canons that has been used for the past 2,500 years to construct and deliver persuasive texts. Aspects of the first and third canons are particularly highlighted as relevant when investigating young people's persuasive language choices in contemporary educational contexts.

2.1 - Classical Rhetoric

In contemporary times, the term rhetoric is used to mean different things in different contexts (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003), yet traditionally it has been associated with "the writing of compositions and themes" or with texts that feature "figures of speech, flowery diction, and variety of sentence patterns and

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[1] As classical rhetoric was devised as the first model of persuasion, it is reviewed before the more contemporary SFL.

rhythms" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 15). Rhetoric has been defined as "a phenomenon of all human cultures [involved in] all communication" (Kennedy, 1999, p. 1); as "the art or discipline that deals with the use of discourse to inform or persuade or motivate an audience" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 1); and as "the use of language as a symbolic means of inducing cooperation in beings that by nature respond to symbols" (Burke, 1969, p. 43). Aristotle's (322 B.C./2004) classical conception of rhetoric was defined as "the power to observe the persuasiveness of which any particular matter admits" (p. 74), or in other words, "the technique of discovering the persuasive aspects of any given subject-matter" (Lawson-Tancred, 2004, p. 65). While interaction with others is an important aspect of this process, the main focus of classical rhetoric was on mastering a particular model of argument. The following sections outline the origins and key elements of this tradition, highlighting how this model of argument has been taught in traditional and contemporary contexts.

2.2 - Origins of Classical Rhetoric

Classical rhetoric was first devised in the 5th century BC in Ancient Greece, where it was largely associated with oral discourse in public settings. Classical rhetoric was primarily associated with persuasive discourse, with orators following a set of principles that would assist them to persuade an audience about the truth of an issue, or to act in a certain way (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). With his teacher Plato and a group known as the Sophists, Aristotle provided the first conceptual framework of classical rhetoric (Nelson, 2011).

Following its origins in Ancient Greece, classical rhetoric was further developed in Ancient Rome, where Cicero, Quintilian and other rhetoricians formed a pedagogical approach grounded in Aristotelian theory (Nelson, 2011). This approach divided Aristotle's rhetoric into five interconnecting parts for pedagogical purposes, known as the five canons of classical rhetoric. The principles that make up these canons form a cognitive model of argument that can be followed by speakers and writers to construct and deliver arguments on any topic.

2.3 - The Five Canons of Classical Rhetoric

In the traditional Latin, the five canons of classical rhetoric are Inventio, Dispositio, Elocutio, Memoria, and Pronuntiatio, which translate in English as Invention, Arrangement, Style, Memory, and Delivery (Corbett & Connors, 1999). A brief summary of each canon was provided by Cicero (55 B.C./1942), when he stated that orators must:

> . . . hit upon what to say (i.e., Invention); then manage and marshal his discoveries, not merely in orderly fashion, but with a discriminating eye for the exact weight as it were of each argument (i.e., Arrangement); next go on to array them in the adornments of style (i.e., Style); after that keep them guarded in his memory (i.e., Memory); and in the end deliver them with effect and charm (i.e., Delivery). (p. 142)

This summary highlights how classical rhetoric was conceptualised for the art of oral persuasion, to be used in civic life (Kennedy, 1999), yet for written discourse, only the first three canons are relevant.

2.3.1 - Three Forms of Persuasive Discourse.

Beyond the five canons, another key tenet of classical rhetoric involves three forms of persuasive discourse that can be used by speakers and writers to serve different rhetorical purposes. Specifically, *deliberative discourse* involves persuading others to take a certain action or to accept a point of view; *judicial discourse* involves determining the legality of an action; and *epideictic discourse* involves the praising or condemning of individuals or groups (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004; Corbett & Connors, 1999; Kennedy, 1999). In addition to their purpose, the forms of discourse are also distinguished by the time periods they concern, with judicial discourse concerning events of the past; epideictic discourse concerning events of the present; and deliberative discourse concerning events of the future (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). These forms of persuasive discourse are summarised in the following table:

Table 1. Forms of Persuasive Discourse According to Classical Rhetoric

Persuasive discourse	Time period	Purpose
Judicial	Concerned with past events	To persuade others that a person is guilty or innocent, or that an action did or did not occur
Epideictic	Concerned with present events	To persuade others that a person is honourable or dishonourable
Deliberative	Concerned with future events	To persuade others to take action

Being familiar with these principles allows speakers and writers to know how and when to use each form of persuasive discourse. An effective rhetorician is "one who is able to speak in court or in deliberative bodies so as to prove (judicial discourse)[2], to please (epideictic discourse), and to sway or persuade (deliberative discourse)" (Cicero, 55 B.C./1942, p. 69).

Deliberative discourse – also known as hortative discourse – is commonly used when one party attempts to exhort another to do something (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). Deliberative discourse involves "the determination of the advantages of some action" (Kennedy, 1999, p. 7), and is concerned with the future as the speaker or writer persuades their audience about something good, bad, advantageous or disadvantageous that has yet to take place (Aristotle, 322

[2] Bracketed words added for clarity

B.C./2004). "Deliberative discourse is occasioned by, and created in response to, a community's need to make a decision" (Markel, 2009, p. 5), and as such is commonly seen in political addresses, where the central question posed is: "Is it more beneficial . . . to do this or that?" (Porter & Ulbricht, 1996, p. 281).

Judicial discourse – also referred to as forensic discourse – involves "the determination of the justice or legality of an action" (Kennedy, 1999, p. 7). Judicial discourse is concerned with the past, as speakers and writers persuade audiences about something that has already occurred. In this way, the central question for judicial discourse is: "Did he or she do it or not?" (Porter & Ulbricht, 1996, p. 281). As a response to legal freedoms introduced in Ancient Greece, judicial discourse became essential for citizens who represented themselves in early court cases, and by the 19th century, judicial discourse had become "the exclusive province of lawyers" (Kennedy, 1999, p. 28).

Epideictic discourse – also referred to as ceremonial discourse – involves the "praise or blame of what is honourable or dishonourable" (Kennedy, 1999, p. 7), and is primarily concerned with events of the present (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). In this form of discourse, the author's aim is to praise an individual or group by answering the key question: "Should something or someone be praised or blamed?" (Porter & Ulbricht, 1996, p. 281). Examples of this form of discourse include graduation speeches, weddings, and the opening of formal events. Epideictic discourse can be difficult to distinguish as the dominant discursive form in a persuasive text, as it is usually present in both deliberative

and judicial discourses (Perelmen & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969). These forms of persuasive discourse are discussed further in the following section.

2.3.2 - Invention.

Before arguments can be made, speakers and writers must have something to speak or write about. To assist them to with this process, classical rhetoricians devised the canon of Invention, which is broadly composed of two main elements: proofs and topics. There are two kinds of proofs: non-artistic and artistic, and two kinds of topics: common and special. These aspects of invention are depicted in the following table:

Table 2. The First Canon of Classical Rhetoric

Invention			
Proofs		Topics	
Non-artistic	Artistic (Appeals)	Special	Common

2.3.2.1 - Proofs.

Central to Invention is the notion that any act of persuasion involves two types of persuasive proofs used by speakers or writers to persuade audiences (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). The first type of proof is described as non-artistic, in that it exists outside the rhetoric and is exploited by the author (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). Aristotle (322 B.C./2004) outlined five kinds of non-artistic proofs, including: laws; witnesses; contracts; tortures; and oaths. If a speaker or writer quotes laws, the words of witnesses, or any non-artistic proof in their

arguments, they are said to be exploiting these proofs, rather than inventing them. Of great interest to Aristotle was the second type of proof, labelled artistic. Artistic proofs must be invented by the speaker or writer through the rhetorical method (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). There are three artistic proofs, commonly referred to as the three appeals (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003), however this study is more concerned with the other main element of Invention: the topics.

2.3.2.2 - The topics.

To assist speakers and writers to invent arguments for their persuasive texts, classical rhetoricians identified a range of lines of argument known as the topics (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). The topics represent a resource bank of possible arguments for any context, and can be used to "suggest material from which proofs can be made" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 19). There are common topics: a stock of general arguments that can be used on any occasion; and special topics: specific arguments appropriate to the three forms of persuasive discourse: judicial; epideictic; and deliberative (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). The topics of Invention are depicted in the following table. This study focuses specifically on how high achieving student writers drew on the special topics associated with three forms of persuasive discourse when constructing their persuasive texts.

Table 3. The Topics of Invention

Topics						
Special			Common			
Judicial topics	Epideictic topics	Deliberative topics	More & less	Possible & impossible	Past fact & future fact	Greatness & smallness

Each form of discourse features a set of special topics (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004), which provide starting points for arguments (Kennedy, 1999). The forms of discourse and their special topics are outlined in the following section.

2.3.2.3 – Special Topics of Deliberative discourse.

When persuading others to act in certain ways, speakers and writers "aim at establishing the expediency or the harmfulness of a proposed course of action; if he urges its acceptance, he does so on the ground that it will do good; if he urges its rejection, he does so on the ground that it will do harm" (Aristotle, 350 B.C./2007, p. 6). It is from this notion of what will be most or least beneficial that the special topics of deliberative discourse have been conceptualised. These special topics are shown in the following table:

Table 4. The Special Topics of Deliberative Discourse

Special topic	Emphasis
1. The worthy or the unworthy	The right or wrong thing to do
2. The advantageous or the disadvantageous	The most personally beneficial or detrimental

When a person draws on deliberative discourse, their appeals can be categorised under the special topics of the worthy/unworthy or the advantageous/disadvantageous (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). To highlight the difference between these topics, Corbett and Connors (1999) used the example of convincing a person to study poetry. They stated, "we might urge that the cultivation of poetry is a good in itself and therefore worthy of pursuit for its own sake . . . [or] we might conduct our appeal on a less exalted level by showing that the study of poetry can produce practical results" (p. 121). Whether a speaker or writer relies more heavily on the topic of the worthy or the advantageous will depend on the nature of the subject and the audience (Corbett & Connors, 1999). Essentially, both topics are concerned with happiness, as this is the end that determines what people choose and what they avoid (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). If their task is to persuade others about a future action, speakers and writers can turn to these topics, highlighting what is the right thing to do in a moral sense, or what will be most beneficial to them personally.

2.3.2.4 – Special Topics of Judicial discourse.

When considering whether something did or did not occur, speakers and writers can focus on questions of fact, questions of definition, and/or questions of quality (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). These three special topics of judicial discourse are highlighted in the following table:

Table 5. The Special Topics of Judicial Discourse

Special topic	Emphasis
1. A question of fact	Did the act occur?
2. A question of definition	What charge is being made?
3. A question of quality	Is the act justifiable?

Corbett and Connors (1999) outlined these special topics in the following ways. For questions of fact, the speaker or writer focuses on what the evidence is; how, when, where, and by whom the evidence was gathered; and its reliability. For issues of definition, they focus on what charge is being made; what law is supposedly violated; who the alleged injustice harmed; and the extent of the harm. For questions of quality the focus is on motives, with the speaker or writer considering whether the alleged injustice was intentional or unintentional. If unintentional they can consider what the cause was, and if intentional, they can consider what the motive was, and the nature of the supposed wrongdoer. The following examples from Corbett and Connors (1999) highlight the three questions in relation to a murder investigation:

1. Did Brutus, as has been alleged, kill Caesar? (A question of fact)
2. If it is granted that Brutus did kill Caesar, was the act murder or self-defence? (A question of definition)
3. If it was in fact murder, was Brutus justified in murdering Caesar? (A question of quality). (p. 28)

Judicial discourse is the typical style of discourse in contemporary courtrooms and legal hearings, though primary and secondary school students are less likely to encounter it in school classrooms. Despite this, judicial discourse remains relevant in other areas of society, and its principles are still taught in Schools of Law in many universities.

2.3.2.5 – Special Topics of Epideictic discourse.

Epideictic discourse "does not aim at a specific action or decision but seeks to enhance knowledge, understanding, or belief, often through praise or blame, whether of persons, things, or values" (Kennedy, 1997, p. 45). It involves the use of emotive language, as it "inspires an audience to appreciate something or someone, or at the other end of the spectrum, despise something or someone" (Witherington, 2007, p. 8). There are two special topics for epideictic discourse: virtues and vices; and assets and achievements, highlighted as follows:

Table 6. The Special Topics of Epideictic Discourse

Special topic	Emphasis
1. Virtues and vices	Personal characteristics – who the person is
2. Personal assets and achievements	Accomplishments – what the person does

The topic of virtues and vices focuses on who a person is, while assets and achievements focuses on what a person does or has accomplished (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). With virtues and vices, speakers and writers

commonly discuss themes of: courage or cowardice; temperance or indulgence; justice or injustice; liberality or selfishness; prudence or rashness; gentleness or brutality; and loyalty or disloyalty (Corbett & Connors, 1999). Conversely, with assets and achievements they focus on natural or acquired attributes such as physical characteristics, family background, education, economic status, and achievements (Corbett & Connors, 1999). "Epideictic discourse fell into disfavour in antiquity as it evolved into a highly figurative, even fictive mode of discourse that seemed primarily to advertise its speaker's skill" (Sheard, 1996, p. 767). This criticism was particularly appropriate during the European Renaissance, when the structure of the five canons was altered to include only Style and Delivery (Ong, 1979), yet epideictic discourse has remained a prominent component of classical rhetoric throughout history, and is commonly encountered in contemporary classrooms.

The three forms of persuasive discourse and their special topics are summarised in the table below as concepts of Invention that are particularly relevant to this study:

Table 7. Topics of Deliberative, Judicial and Epideictic Discourse

	Deliberative discourse	Judicial discourse	Epideictic discourse
Topics	1. The worthy or the unworthy 2. The advantageous or the disadvantageous	1. A question of fact (sub-topic: evidence) 2. A question of definition (sub-topic: definition) 3. A question of quality (sub-topic: motives)	1. Virtues and vices 2. Personal assets and achievements

The process of Invention leads speakers and writers to consider whether the issue being argued concerns past, present, or future events, as this will determine the most appropriate form(s) of persuasive discourse to use. The form(s) they select will indicate a set of special topics that can be used as lines of argument for each section of their text. Once arguments have been invented through this method, the next step in the classical model is to arrange the material logically through the process of Arrangement.

2.3.3 - Arrangement.

According to the classical model of argument, persuasive texts should be arranged into the following six parts:

- *exordium* – an introduction
- *narratio* – a statement of the case being considered
- *divisio* – an outline of the argument's main points

- *confirmatio* – proof(s) for each point
- *confutatio* – a refutation of opposing arguments
- *peroratio* – a conclusion

These parts are commonly presented in a rigid order for speakers or writers to follow, yet theorists and scholars of classical rhetoric have acknowledged that on occasion it is beneficial to omit certain aspects, or to rearrange them (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003). While the first canon of classical rhetoric specifies three distinct forms of persuasive discourse, the choice of discourse does not generally impact the set arrangement of material. As the arrangement of texts from this perspective is rigidly fixed in this way—with potential for parts to be omitted—this model was not deemed to provide descriptions of the range of genre choices needed for the study, and so it is not considered further. With their arguments invented and arranged, a speaker or writer following the classical approach is will then present their material with the principles of Style.

2.3.4 - Style.

Style involves speaking or writing in a manner that will most effectively persuade a given audience (Cicero, 55 B.C./1942). This can be achieved by patterning sentences logically; establishing rhythmical patterns in sentences that are pleasing to the ear; and varying expected word or phrase meanings for rhetorical effects (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003). A key aspect of Style is the notion of figures of speech: figurative language devices that speakers and writers can

deploy to achieve a variety of effects in their persuasive texts. The following section considers figures of speech in greater detail.

2.3.4.1 - Figures of speech.

Figures of speech can be used by speakers and writers to make arguments easier to understand and more persuasive (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). Figures of speech can be used to "add energy and passion in a hundred different ways to a speech" (Longinus, 100 A.D./1890, p. 36); "add force and charm to our matter" (Quintilian, 95 A.D./1920, p. 349); stir the emotions of the audience (Cicero, 55 B.C./1942); and communicate clearly and effectively (Corbett & Connors, 1999). They have been classified and defined throughout history, with researchers and scholars dedicating much of their work to this practice (e.g., Peacham, 1577; Susenbrotus, 1540/1953). For instance, Joseph's (1947) research into the literacy practices of school students during the time of Shakespeare classified over 200 unique figures of speech, and suggested Shakespeare's literary skills were due in part to the theory of composition which prevailed at the time. Individual figures of speech have been classified into two main categories, according to their use in society.

2.3.4.2 - Classification of figures of speech.

Figures of speech are classified as either tropes (from the Greek tropein, meaning to turn) or schemes (from the Greek schema, meaning form) (Corbett & Connors, 1999), as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Figures of speech: Tropes and schemes

Figure of speech	Trope	Scheme
Definition	A transference of regular word meaning	A transference of regular word order
Example	Metaphor	Antithesis

Tropes involve "the transference of expressions from their natural and principal signification to another, with a view to the embellishment of style" (Quintilian, 95 A.D./1920, p. 351). With tropes, the transference is achieved through embellishing the regular meaning (Harris, 2003). An example of this is seen in the following use of metaphor where two different things are compared by speaking of one in terms of the other: "On the final examination, several students went down in flames" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 396). Alternatively, schemes involve "giving our language a conformation other than the obvious and ordinary" (Quintilian, 95 A.D./1920, p. 351). With schemes, the embellishment is achieved through manipulation of the word order. The figure of antithesis achieves this by juxtaposing two contrasting ideas in a parallel structure for a particular effect, as in the biblical: sorrowful, yet always rejoicing; poor, yet making many rich; having nothing, and yet possessing everything (Harris, 2003). Following the classical model of argument, speakers and writers first invent and arrange arguments, and can then make use of figurative language to convey their ideas with enhanced affect and clarity of meaning. As

Style concerns the expression of invented ideas, it is the final relevant canon for written persuasion.

2.4 - Use of Rhetoric in the History of Education

To this point, the chapter has focused broadly on introducing key concepts of classical rhetoric that are relevant to written persuasion. To explain how it has become an important aspect of the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a), the alteration of this model throughout history is now given attention. This chapter concludes by explaining how these principles of classical rhetoric are particularly relevant for primary and secondary teachers of persuasive texts in contemporary Australian classrooms.

2.4.1 – Classical Rhetoric through the Ages.

From its origins in Ancient Greece, the classical model of argument has seen significant changes throughout history. From Greece, rhetoric spread to Rome where Cicero (55 B.C./1942) arranged it into five canons for pedagogical purposes, and Quintilian (95 A.D./1920) produced the first codified textbook on the theory and practice of rhetoric. Christianity had a strong impact on classical rhetoric during the Middle Ages, with its religious uses becoming the dominant topic of rhetoric for centuries, instead of its traditional focuses of law and politics (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003). Although the principles of classical rhetoric were applied to written discourse in the Middle Ages, the invention of printing during the Renaissance allowed this application to occur on a much broader scale (Corbett & Connors, 1999). The shift from more spoken to more written

discourse impacted on the relevance of all five canons, with Memory and Delivery in particular becoming less important to study (Kennedy, 1999).

Aspects of the classical model were disconnected and applied to other branches of study throughout history (Ong, 1979). As an example, French educator Peter Ramus restructured the language curriculum at the conclusion of the 16th century, which involved the merging of Arrangement and Memory, before taking Invention and Arrangement from the five canons altogether; adding them to the study of logic (Ong, 1979). This modification left rhetoric with Style and Delivery only, dramatically altering its emphasis from thought processes to surface features (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003). Jasinski (2001) stated:

> . . . the impact of this shift can still be seen today in the tendency of many European scholars to view rhetoric as the study of tropes and figures of speech, disconnected from more substantive concerns such as argument. (p. 81)

Influential texts on rhetoric were composed by Campbell (1776) and Blair (1783) during the 18th century, with Campbell investigating the role of rhetoric in Christianity, and Blair arguing the connection between rhetoric and social success. In the 19th century, further texts were written by Whately (1828) and Bain (1890), with focuses again on rhetoric and Christianity (Whately, 1828), and on the education of university students (Bain, 1890). Nelson (2011) stated that as a subject of study, rhetoric received little to no focus at the primary or secondary levels of education in western countries during the 19th century, and by the

beginning of the 20th century, rhetoric existed as a much altered version of its original conception.

2.4.2 - The New Rhetoric.

During the 1950s, theorists began suggesting the need for a *new* rhetoric (Burke, 1951). Although the label has become widespread, there has not been a single new rhetoric. All forms of the new rhetoric aim to return to concerns of the classical model of argument, rectifying the changes made by Ramus in the 16th century, while moving forward with new concerns for contemporary society. Since its conception in Ancient Greece, rhetoric has been fragmented, modified, condensed, and in some ways renewed by variations of the new rhetoric, yet Corbett and Connors (1999) predicted a further new rhetoric:

> Undoubtedly, there will be a new rhetoric for the twenty-first century, a rhetoric of cyberspace that will be more comprehensive than any that has been devised so far, an international rhetoric that will be congenial for people of many nations and cultures. But in that new rhetoric there will be noticeable residues of classical rhetoric. (p. xi)

Despite its alterations and revisions over time, the return by scholars to the concerns of classical rhetoric suggests the canons have "stood the test of time, representing a legitimate taxonomy of processes" (Phillips, 1991, p. 70), and represent a worthwhile model for interdisciplinary study, particularly in education (Corder, 1971).

2.4.3 - Classical Rhetoric and Contemporary Education.

In contemporary universities, classical rhetoric can be studied as a subject in higher education, yet even at the primary and secondary levels a number of its principles are embedded in curriculum documents that inform teaching from as early as kindergarten (Nelson, 2011). In primary and secondary schools, English teachers tend to focus on aspects of the first three canons of classical rhetoric, with Invention often termed prewriting, and Arrangement often termed organisation (Nelson, 2011). Classical rhetoric is particularly relevant for persuasive writing instruction in Australia, as the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a) and NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) call for students to use a wide range of rhetorical principles, with figures of speech garnering the most attention. As such, research into children's comprehension and use of figurative language in educational contexts forms the focus of the following sections.

2.4.4 - Figurative Language in Persuasive Discourse.

> Figures of speech have stylistic and cognitive functions in different types of discourse. We need only think of the importance of metaphor in scientific models, of hyperbole in advertising, metonymy in journalism, simile and metaphor in political speeches and touristic texts. (Dombek, 2012, para. 1)

Research into the impact of figurative language on the persuasiveness of arguments provides further insight into why certain figures of speech are more

suited to persuasive writing than other genres. For example, a study into the use of figurative language in high scoring and low scoring essays at the tertiary level discovered that "the presence of figurative language did not make weak arguments more persuasive, suggesting the presence of such language did not facilitate a more positive attitude about the topic" (Kruez, Ashley, & Bartlett, 2002, para. 20). The authors suggested that figures of speech in the weaker texts may have been less persuasive due to their density within the texts being too high. Similar findings were discussed in research by Sopory and Dillard (2002), which found that a lesser amount of strategically placed tropes such as metaphor could result in the enhanced persuasiveness of texts. Further to this point, rhetorical questions have been found to alter reader attitudes most effectively when deployed at an argument's end, rather than at its start or somewhere in between (Howard, 1990). In this regard, simply adorning persuasive texts with figurative language is not sufficient to persuade readers.

Of all figures of speech, metaphor in particular has been the attention of much research (e.g., Asch & Nerlove, 1960; Knowles & Moon, 2006; Ortony, Turner, & Larson-Sharpiro, 1985). Metaphor refers to "a novel or poetic linguistic expression where one or more words for a concept are used outside of their normal conventional meaning to express a similar concept" (Lakoff, 1993, p. 202). In this way, metaphor can be used to make everyday language more exotic, and complex concepts easier to understand (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004).

In contemporary societies, a diverse range of disciplines rely of metaphor to convey meaning effectively, including semantics, literature, cinema, music and religion, with each discipline communicating such divergent meanings verbally and non-verbally (Knowles & Moon, 2006). Speakers and writers can use metaphor "to change the nature of an issue being debated in such a way that it is clear what should be done" (Martin, 1989, p. 48). Martin (1985) explained this with the example of an ecological debate about culling kangaroos, where right antagonists would refer to kangaroos metaphorically as commercial products; right protagonists as renewable resources like trees or fish; left protagonists as threatened species; and left antagonists as people, where their killing would be a kind of murder. In each case, metaphor is used to represent kangaroos differently to serve the speaker or writer's purpose. While it would be advantageous for certain stakeholders if kangaroos were seen as commercial products, the debate would shift to the criminal arena if they were seen as people. Such uses of metaphor "have a powerful effect on the success of persuasive texts in convincing the readers one way or the other, and its importance cannot be underestimated" (Martin, 1989, p. 46). In general, metaphors are "absolutely typical of persuasive writing", while similes are "the poet's tool" (Martin, 1989, p. 24). This writing mostly concerned the use of figurative language by adults, yet the following sections shift focus to the comprehension and use of figurative language by children.

2.4.4.2 - Student use of figurative language.

One study attempted to map out the developmental patterns of figurative language use in primary school students from Year 3 to Year 6 (Pollio, 1973). It involved five schools of varying socio-economic status, with one classroom from each working through a creative thinking and writing program, and another classroom from each working through regular curriculum content. The study found that students exposed to more figurative language use through the creative writing program produced texts with considerably more figurative language than those who did not, apart from the low income, low achievement school, where there was no significant difference (Pollio, 1973). This was again addressed by Pollio and Pollio (1974), who "sought to determine age trends as to when children come to make use of figurative language" (p. 185). This follow up study discovered that students produced a substantial amount of figurative language from as early as Year 3, "even before they could explain the exact nature of the relationship linking elements of the figure" (Pollio & Pollio, 1974, p. 185). The findings of these studies support the notion that greater exposure to figurative language allows children to draw on these resources in their own writing.

The above studies investigated the use of figurative language in narrative texts. By comparison, little research has examined primary and secondary school students' figurative language use for persuasive purposes. In addition, much of the research into figurative language comprehension and use has

focused on a small subset of figures of speech, most prominently the use of metaphor. The lack of research into this area represents a significant gap in the literature. As such there is great potential for the present study to address one aspect of this gap.

2.5 - Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced classical rhetoric, an ancient theory predominantly concerned with the persuasive power of language. First devised in ancient Greece, classical rhetoric was later adapted as a five part model of argument for pedagogical purposes. The five parts – known as the five canons – were designed as a bank of potential rhetorical choices available to speakers as they invent, arrange, stylise, memorise and deliver persuasive speeches, though for written persuasion only the first three canons are relevant. To effectively understand key elements of classical rhetoric that pertain to persuasive writing in contemporary Australian educational contexts, research into the use of three forms of persuasive discourse, their associated special topics, and figures of speech were then outlined, highlighting that much remains to be discovered about how students draw on these banks of resources across the primary and secondary school years. A range of key concepts from the literature around classical rhetoric are listed as follows to highlight the sorts of rhetorical choices that will be examined in the study's analysis of texts.

2.5.1 - Three Forms of Persuasive Discourse.

- The 2011 NAPLAN prompt asked students to consider whether too much money is being spent on toys and games. As such, it relates strongly to actions of the past and/or present. The study will therefore seek to confirm whether high scoring students commonly based arguments on the special topics of judicial and/or epideictic discourse, arguing whether too much money had or had not been spent, and/or on praising or criticising those who spend money on toys and games.

2.5.2 - The Use of Figurative Language.

- Researchers have argued that individual figures of speech serve particular stylistic purposes and are therefore more or less appropriate to deploy in particular genres of writing (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004; Martin, 1989; Dombek, 2012). The 20 figures of speech listed explicitly or implicitly in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) will be compared with the figures of speech used by the highest scoring students to ascertain whether they are appropriate for that context.

- Research has suggested that the strategic placement of particular figures of speech at key points in arguments is more indicative of persuasiveness than the overall density of figures deployed (Howard, 1990; Kreuz, Ashley, & Bartlett, 2002; Sopory & Dillard, 2002). A key aspect of the present study is therefore to highlight the stages that high scoring students deployed figures of speech in their persuasive texts, as well as the number.

With the study's first theoretical perspective outlined, the next chapter focuses on the complementary tradition of Systemic Functional Linguistics.

3 - Theoretical Foundations: Systemic Functional Linguistics

3.0 - Introduction

This chapter introduces the contemporary tradition of Systemic Functional Linguistics, which views language as a set of tools used to accomplish social purposes.

3.1 - Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics can be used by researchers and educators to unpack and understand patterns of meaning in language at the levels of genre, context, discourse, clauses, words, and even individual sounds. Such thinking is based on the seminal work of Michael Halliday (1976, 1977), who viewed language not as a set of rules or restrictions, but as a tool for meaning making. As this study is concerned with students' persuasive genre and language choices made in one context, systems and principles of SFL that are particularly relevant to persuasive writing are explored in detail.

3.2 - The functional nature of language

Language is functional. It is used to accomplish a wide variety of social purposes. Halliday (1994, 2003) described language as *metafunctionally* organised, in that it involves three semantic components – or kinds of meanings – that function any time language is used. These semantic components are known as the ideational; interpersonal; and textual metafunctions (See Figure 1). Each metafunction is made up by distinct sets of systems or principles, that

provide researchers with lenses to view how any use of language conveys meanings and achieves social purposes.

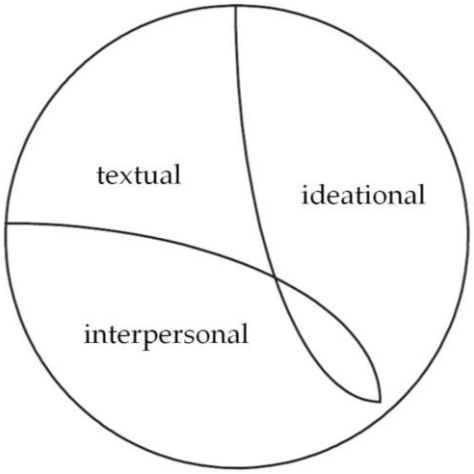

Figure 1. The three metafunctions.

The ideational metafunction is concerned with language resources that are used to construe experiences with the world (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997), and provides language users with the means to make sense of reality (Halliday, 2003). "Ideation focuses on the content of a discourse: what kinds of activities are undertaken, and how participants in these activities are described, how they are classified and what are they composed of" (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 66). Ideational meanings are concerned with representing experiences in a given context, however this is not the only meaning functioning when people communicate.

The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with the grammatical resources that allow language users to enact social roles and interactions, and maintain interpersonal relations (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). This is the

interpersonal function of language, and it "is influenced by the tenor of the immediate context, that is, the relationship of status and solidarity between the producer of the text and audience" (Humphrey, Droga, & Feez, 2013, p. 83). Those producing texts interact with audiences through the use of interpersonal resources which allow them to express points of view, evaluate phenomena, and attempt to align audiences with their own perspectives. While ideational meanings involve expressing ideas and experiences, interpersonal meanings involve interactions between the people involved.

The third metafunction – the textual – is concerned with the patterning and presentation of ideational and interpersonal meanings into texts that can be comprehended by speakers, writers, listeners and readers (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). It refers to "the semantic and grammatical balance between the lines [of a text], the thematic structure, the rhythm and information focus, and the metric structure. Textual meanings carry out this connecting of ideational and interpersonal meanings through the mode of communication, such as written essays, shopping lists, speeches or everyday conversations. Together, ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings perform the three functions of language, and the systems and principles of SFL allow researchers to explore these functions in every use of language.

3.3 - Stratification

SFL is particularly useful for examining the function of language in a given context, as it "provides analysts with complementary lenses for

interpreting language in use" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 7). The first lens has been described above – that language is a resource for mapping three kinds of meanings onto each other in texts. In this way, researchers can "identify different functions realized by different patterns of meaning" (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 6). The second lens is known as stratification – that language is stratified into distinct layers representing different perspectives of language in use (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). These layers can be represented in the following way:

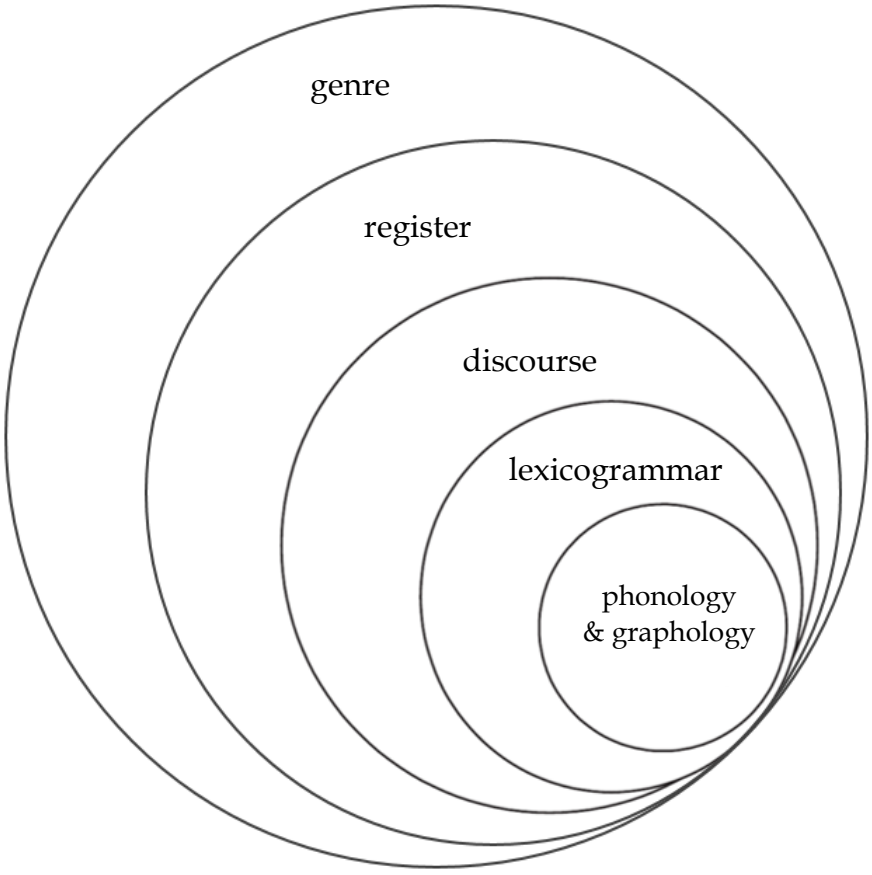

Figure 2. A stratified model of language.

From the SFL perspective, texts involve a combination of layers of structure, with phonology and graphology in the centre, surrounded by lexicogrammar, discourse semantics, register, and genre. Phonology and graphology is concerned with the structure of sounds and symbols; lexicogrammar with the structure of clauses and sentences; discourse semantics with the structure of meanings across whole texts; register with the context in which these meanings are conveyed; and genre with patterns of register selections in stages of discourse (Martin & White, 2005).

From the outermost layer, patterns of meaning in genre are realised as patterns of meaning in register, which are realised as patterns of meaning in discourse, and so on down the layers of language. "The relation between these levels is known as realisation" (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 21). The speaking, listening, writing or reading of any text requires the processing of these layers of patterns simultaneously, highlighting the complexity of learning to use and interpret language. These layers allow researchers to explore language from its basic building blocks through to the generalised patterns used to accomplish a range of social purposes. Each layer is now briefly outlined in turn, from the inside with phonology and graphology.

3.3.1 - The Layers of Language.

The first layer explores language from a bottom up perspective, considering how individual speech sounds (phonemes) are organised into syllables, and how individual letters and symbols (graphemes) are organised

into words (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This perspective is referred to as phonology and graphology, as it relates to the basic building blocks of language: sounds and symbols (Martin & White, 2005). When these meanings form into the identifiable patterns of clauses and sentences, this realises the next level of abstraction, known as lexicogrammar.

The second level of coding – lexicogrammar – allows researchers to analyse how words are arranged into grammatical patterns of clauses and sentences. This involves "the recoding of phonological and graphological patterns as words and structures" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 8). This second layer is realised by patterns of phonological and graphological patterns and is thus described as more abstract than the first layer (Martin & White, 2005). When these wordings form the identifiable patterns of whole texts, this realises a third level of abstraction (Rose & Martin, 2012).

The third level of coding – discourse semantics – explores language from a top down perspective, considering the grammatical patterns across whole texts (Martin & White, 2005). Discourse semantics concerns the meanings of whole spoken or written texts.

The notion of realisation refers to the relationship between the layers of language and increasing order of abstraction, and as such it provides the means to analyse patterns of meaning in texts at different levels. However, Halliday stressed that patterns of meanings in language cannot be understood if divorced from a meaningful context, but rather should be interpreted within the context it

is used (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). This suggestion pushed the bounds of realisation beyond the third layer, into register and genre.

3.3.2 - Context.

Halliday credits his early thinking on context to Malinowski's (1935) work on context of situation, which he broadly defined as "the environment of the text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). According to Malinowski (1935), "all the meaning of all words is derived from bodily experience" (p. 58), an idea extended by Firth (1950) who created a framework of context featuring the following aspects:

- Participants in the situation (roles of the participants)
- Action of the participants (participants' verbal and non-verbal actions)
- Other relevant features of the situation (relevant surrounding objects and events)
- Effects of the verbal action (changes brought by the participants' verbal exchanges)

Firth's (1950) model went beyond individual instances of language use by describing the context of situation for any text[3]. Referencing these prior theories, Halliday introduced a conceptual framework called register which broke

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[3] Similar to Firth's ideas were those of Hymes (1967) who presented his own framework on context of situation.

context of situation into three components: field; tenor; and mode (Halliday & Hasan, 1985).

3.3.3 - Register.

Halliday incorporated register into his theory of SFL by suggesting that the variety of language meaning (ideational, interpersonal and textual) corresponds to the variety in the context of situation (field, tenor and mode) (See Figure 3).

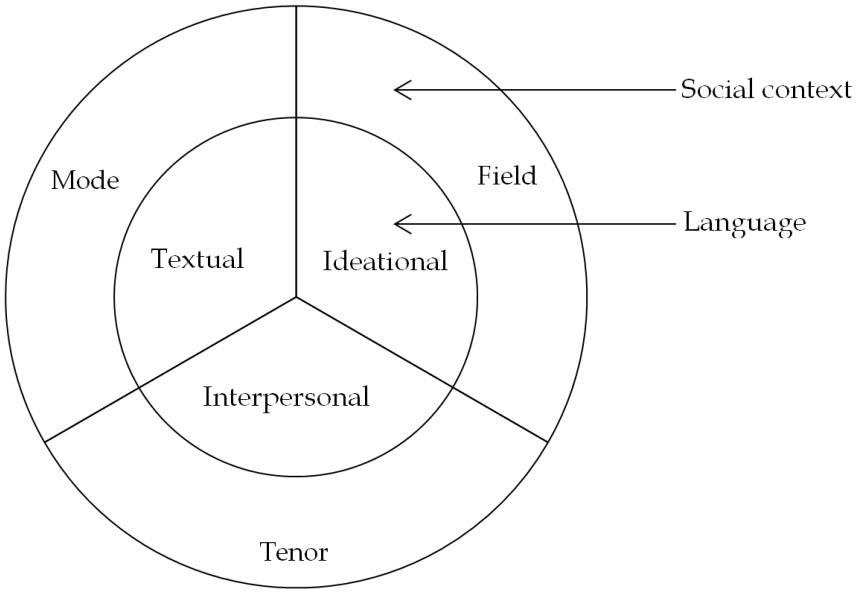

Figure 3. Relationship between language and social context.

"Since it is a configuration of meanings, a register must also include the expressions, the lexicogrammatical and phonological features that typically accompany or realise these meanings" (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 39). Register can therefore be considered "a more abstract level of analysis than discourse

semantics, since it is concerned with patterns of discourse patterns" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 27).

Register is split into the components of field, tenor and mode. First, the field of discourse is concerned with the social actions taking place that involve language (e.g., the topic being written or spoken about). Second, the tenor of discourse is concerned with the status and roles of the participants (e.g., the status of the person/people communicating and being communicated with). Third, the mode of discourse is concerned with the part language plays in a social action (e.g., the nature of the text as written or spoken, monomodal or multimodal). In this way, the language choices made by the producer of a text will differ depending on the field, the tenor, and the mode of the text. When language is used for persuasive purposes, the register variable most at risk is tenor (Martin, 1995; White, 1998), as "persuasion depends to a large extent on tenor relationships . . . which are established between interactants" (Humphrey, 2008, p. 172).

3.3.2.1 - Tenor.

Tenor involves a range of factors relevant to the social identities of those interacting, including their "gender, status, age, profession and ideological stance" (Hasan, 2009, p. 15-16). These contextual factors influence the language choices made in a given interaction. For instance, a mother would use different language choices to explain the death of a family member to her child, and to another adult. A university student would use different language choices when

speaking with their parents, and with a distinguished professor. Unpacking this further, tenor has been described as having two main variables: power and solidarity (Martin & Rose, 2003; Poynton, 1985). These variables are clarified in the following sections, beginning with power.

3.3.2.2 - Power.

Power relates to equalities and inequalities of status across various dimensions (Martin & Rose, 2003). In written communication, the language choices are influenced by the writer's and reader's ages and associated experiences, their gender, their ethnic backgrounds, their access to material resources, and whether they are disabled. It is more difficult for a writer to persuade a reader to think or act in a certain way when the reader has a higher status of power. An example of this can be seen with the institutionalised unequal power relationship between teachers and students in educational settings (Poynton, 1985). While it is relatively difficult for students to persuade teachers to change their actions, it is socially expected that students will follow teachers' directions at all times.

3.3.2.3 - Solidarity.

The second main variable of tenor is known as solidarity, which relates to the alignment of individuals into communities (Martin & Rose, 2003). A greater degree of solidarity will be established between those who frequently engage in the same activities (e.g., family relationships) and those who share common interests and values (e.g., personal friends). White (1998) described solidarity as

a "general measure of the degree of empathy, sympathy of openness of one social position to another" (p. 32), which makes it particularly relevant when engaging in persuasive practices. Where persuasive language is used, "solidarity involves aligning the audience into shared communities of values so that the appeal for action has more chance of being complied with" (Humphrey, 2008, p. 173). Writers can achieve this alignment by expressing feelings rhetorically to establish points of agreement with their readers. This increases the likelihood that their perspective on the topic will be perceived by readers as the most warranted (Humphrey, 2008).

Together, field, tenor and mode are termed register. Register can be used to describe the nature of texts, as every text carries indications of its context. Halliday's concept of register explains how languages differ across such social practices because "the frequencies of occurrence of many grammatical and semantic features in these texts [are] skewed by the nature of the different activities in which language [is] being used" (Lemke, 1995, p. 26). In this way, register can be considered as a fourth level of abstraction outside discourse semantics.

During the 1980s and 1990s, Martin pushed the analysis of language variation beyond register, when he noticed how "configurations of field, mode and tenor selections unfold in recurring stages of discourse – a pattern of register patterns in other words" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 32). This fifth layer of abstraction was termed genre.

3.3.4 - Genre.

Genres are staged and goal oriented social processes used to accomplish goals, and are reliant upon social interaction (Martin, 1997, 2000, 2001). The social purpose of a text shapes its genre, for instance persuasive texts are produced to persuade others to think or act in particular ways, narratives are produced to entertain listeners and readers, reports are produced to describe and classify phenomena, and so on (Rose & Martin, 2012). Genres highlight how "social purposes/motives are linked to text structures, and how these are realized as situated social and linguistic actions within register" (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 33). The register of a text "contextualizes language and is in turn contextualized by genre" (Martin, 1997, p. 37). This highlights the important relationship between these concepts.

Considering these aspects of SFL broadly allows for a deeper understanding of students' persuasive genre and language choices. The choices these students made were effective in persuading markers, yet the choices needed to accomplish other purposes (i.e., genre), in other contexts (i.e., register), would be quite different. Fortunately then, SFL provides researchers with a wide array of analytical frameworks known as system networks to unpack any use of language.

3.4 - The Systemic Nature of Language

Every act of speaking or writing requires the choice of language resources deemed to most effectively achieve a given purpose. This was

proposed by Halliday (1976), whose functional theory of language is fundamentally tied the notion of choice. According to Halliday (1976):

> The speaker of a language, like a person engaging in any kind of culturally determined behaviour, can be regarded as carrying out, simultaneously and successively, a number of distinct choices. At any given moment, in the environment of the selections made up to that time, a certain range of further choices is available. It is the system that formalizes the notion of choice in language. (p. 3)

Halliday's systems represent possible language choices as the semantic options available to a speaker or writer at a given time (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). Language users choose from a system's set of options as their texts unfold (Rose & Martin, 2012). Systems are usually represented in tables and paradigms. While simple systems "might have only two semantic options . . . [others are] complex and difficult to represent graphically" (Fontaine, 2013). To visually represent these more complex systems, Halliday conceptualised the notion of system networks. The interpersonal systems of APPRAISAL are represented in this way as complex system networks, and are particularly relevant when considering persuasive language choices at the level of discourse semantics.

3.5 - Summary of Key SFL Concepts

This chapter has provided an account of key SFL concepts that are useful to consider when investigating persuasive language choices. In broad terms, the theory of discourse presented by Halliday suggests language is used to

accomplish social purposes (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). As we use language, three kinds of meaning are functioning simultaneously, and these meanings were described by Halliday as metafunctions. The ideational and interpersonal metafunctions relate to phenomena outside a text, while the textual metafunction relates to phenomena created by a text itself (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

The concept of stratification provides a lens for functional linguists to interpret language in use from three different perspectives/levels of abstraction (Martin & White, 2005). These levels are: phonology and graphology – relating to sounds and symbols; lexicogrammar – relating to the organisation of words in clauses and sentences; and discourse semantics – relating to the structure and meanings of whole texts. In this sense, texts consist of "patterns of patterns of patterns . . . [as] patterns of meaning in discourse are realised as patterns of meaning in grammar, which are realised as patterns of phonology or graphology" (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 21).

Beyond discourse semantics, the notion of context of situation can be used to interpret how a text is affected by the context around it. To highlight how the variety of language meanings (metafunctions) match closely with the variety of situation (context of situation), Halliday introduced registers: configurations of meanings, associated with situational configurations of field, mode and tenor, as well as the lexicogrammatical and phonological features that realise these meanings (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). When such

configurations unfold in recurring stages of discourse, these patterns are known as genres (Martin, 1997). Moving through the stratified model from the topmost level of abstraction, it is possible to identify the social purpose of a text from its generic structure; to analyse its register through the lenses of field, tenor and mode; and the meanings it conveys at the levels of the whole text (discourse semantics), clauses and sentences (lexicogrammar), and sounds and symbols (phonology and graphology) through the lenses of the three metafunctions. To highlight the semantic options available to language users in a given context, SFL is conceptualised as a range of systems of possible meanings, organised as tables of choices or paradigms. With these key concepts of SFL in mind, this thesis is situated at the intersection of context and discourse semantics, with particular focus on tenor and the interpersonal metafunction. The chapter now outlines the range of persuasive genres according to the SFL perspective.

3.6 - Persuasive Writing from the SFL Perspective

Persuasive language is used by adults to serve a range of purposes in contemporary contexts, including the media, politics, academia, and advertising. Each context features unique requirements for successful persuasion. For instance, three persuasive genres have been identified as unique to the media, and these are referred to collectively as media texts (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994). These texts are unique in "their textual structure, their patterns of 'textual development', and their social purposes . . . [with each stage] identified on the basis of its distinctive, individual function within the overall

purpose of the text" (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994, p. 14). Media texts include: media expositions, which persuade audiences that something is the case, or that they should do something; media challenges, which question or argue against a viewpoint; and media discussions, which survey or canvass the value of two or more possible viewpoints (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994). In the media context, successful persuasion requires an understanding of the features of these texts, and the ability to produce them, however successful persuasion in the other contexts listed above requires different sets of persuasive language choices.

The persuasive genres and language features students become familiar with in classrooms assists and prepares them to develop understandings of more complex persuasive genres beyond school. The following sections outline issues surrounding the instruction of persuasive writing in Australian schools over the past 30 years, and introduce three school-based persuasive genres that contemporary students become familiar with throughout their primary and secondary schooling.

3.6.1 - Persuasive Writing Instruction over Time.

The teaching and learning of persuasive writing has been problematic in Australian primary and secondary schools for the past 30 years. Three decades ago, persuasive writing accounted for "only a half of 1 per cent of the writing done" in Australian infant and primary schools (Martin, 1989, p. 12). As a result, many students were not prepared for the persuasive strategies required to

construct expository texts in higher education and life after school. Martin (1985) stated:

> People who have not mastered expository writing cannot really change the world; nor can they work effectively to keep it from changing in ways they do not like. They may not even be able to understand the language of the protagonists who we charge with these responsibilities. (p. 50)

Learning how to write persuasively at school has direct implications on the ability to participate in democratic processes as adults, as this "empowers students to produce, evaluate, and act on the professional, ethical, and political discourse that is central to our demonstrative society" (Crammond, 1998, p. 230). Drawing on Bernstein's (1971, 1973, 1975) theories of power, Martin (1985) described children as "the least powerful group of people in our community" (p. 57), and suggested that this powerlessness was unconsciously perpetuated by Australian education systems in the 1980s:

> The analytical exposition they could use to explore and interpret their world is denied them as long as possible . . . [while] the hortatory exposition [they] might use to challenge their world, including the share of power they have in it, is never really developed, even in secondary school. (Martin, 1989, p. 57)

This lack of focus on persuasive writing limited young people's access to the language of power, while the increased focus on persuasive writing in secondary years was considered by many teachers and students as a burden

associated with essays and exams, rather than as a powerful tool for leveraging social change (Martin, 1989). While it is possible to reflect on this as a challenging time in the history of persuasive writing instruction – as was outlined in this study's introduction – the sorts of students who struggled with persuasive writing 30 years ago are the same sorts of students who struggle today (ACARA, 2011c; Martin, 1989), and potential reasons for this were outlined in this study's introduction. Despite the challenges, there is much hope for the future. Historically, persuasive writing was not given priority until secondary school and higher education (Martin, 1989), yet this changed with the advent of the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a), which advocates the explicit teaching of persuasive genres and language choices from the first grade.

3.6.2 - Persuasive Writing in Australian Schools.

Within Australian primary schools, young students are introduced to expositions in Year 1, and are expected to begin writing them in Year 2 (ACARA, 2011a). Discussions are introduced in Year 5, and with each subsequent year a greater emphasis is placed on the development of discussion writing skills (ACARA, 2011a). Expositions and discussions call for different persuasive genre and language choices, and these are outlined in the following sections.

3.6.2.1 - Expositions.

Martin (1985) described expositions as developed explanations, with the main difference being that "in exposition the judgement which needs to be explained is one which is treated as more socially significant and which therefore takes longer to justify" (p. 13). Unlike explanations, expositions involve "more than one argument presented in favour of a judgment" (Martin, 1989, p. 14). A judgement made in expository writing is commonly referred to as the thesis, while reasons supporting it are referred to as arguments (Humphrey, 1996). In more advanced expositions, arguments for a thesis generally form separate paragraphs, with the author summarising their arguments and thesis in a conclusion (Humphrey, 1996).

In the field of rhetorical studies, researchers have traditionally distinguished between texts that argue something is a particular way: argument, and texts that persuade others to take action: persuasion (Kinneavy, 1971). Within SFL, "the terms analytical and hortatory are used to distinguish these fundamental differences in argumentative purpose and strategy" (Coffin, 2004, p. 4). In this way, an analytical exposition aims to persuade others that things are a certain way, while a hortatory exposition aims to persuade others to take action (Martin, 1989). Both types of exposition are used in the adult world to achieve these purposes. Martin (1989) stated:

> Adults who favour analytical exposition like to appear rational and present the way power is shared at a given time as simply a fact of life. Analytical exposition is a good way of presenting the status quo as a kind of immutable given, which people can't really do much about and where feelings have no place. (p. 47)

Alternatively, if their aim is to change the status quo, adults use hortatory exposition, as this "is more suitable for stirring readers' emotions and persuading them to challenge the ways things are" (Martin, 1989, p. 47). The expression of feelings and attitudes is common in hortatory exposition, as such texts are "more like spoken language, but in analytical exposition, whose function is to persuade people that some judgement is correct, feelings and attitudes hardly occur at all" (Martin, 1989, p. 23). In this way, analytical exposition has been characterised as a more impersonal form of writing (Martin, 1989, p. 23), and as a result authors of such texts tend to write in third person, removing themselves from the text where possible. Conversely, authors of hortatory expositions are more likely to write in first person and use a wide range of emotional appeals (Martin, 1989). Analytical and hortatory expositions are used to accomplish different purposes, and particular language choices are deemed appropriate in each, for instance the expression of feelings and emotions.

3.6.2.2 - Discussions.

Whether hortatory or analytical, expositions are characterised by only arguing for one side of an issue, however there are occasions when a writer must evaluate strengths and weaknesses of two or more sides of an issue before judging which is most worthwhile. Within SFL, such texts are termed discussions (Humphrey, 1996; Martin, 2000). Like expository texts, "the main purpose of a discussion is to persuade readers to agree with one particular point of view on an issue" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 141), however they do so by appearing to "weigh up evidence in a rational, balanced way before passing a judgement" (Coffin, 2004, p. 4). According to Humphrey (1996), adults write discussions for many social purposes such as debating or academic writing, where authors must "appear to have evaluated both sides of an argument and to have considered evidence carefully before making a claim" (p. 141). As with the two types of exposition, discussions require a distinct set of language choices that will allow the text to seem more balanced and objective in nature. The three persuasive text types outlined above have been labelled *school-based persuasive genres* for the purposes of this thesis, as they represent the main persuasive texts students become familiar with in Australian primary and secondary school contexts.

3.6.3 - Three School-Based Persuasive Genres.

Drawing on the work of Martin (1985), Humphrey (1996) and Coffin (2004), the purposes and staging of analytical and hortatory expositions and

discussions are represented in the following table, with non-obligatory stages enclosed in brackets. The subsequent sections outline in greater detail what these stages involve, beginning with analytical and hortatory expositions.

Table 9. School-Based Persuasive Genres (adapted from Coffin, 2004, p. 9)

Genre	Analytical exposition	Hortatory exposition	Discussion
Purpose	To put forward a point of view or argument	To put forward a point of view or argument and recommend a course of action	To argue the case for two or more points of view about an issue and state a position
Staging	(Identification) Thesis Arguments (Counter-arguments) Reinforcement of thesis	(Identification) Thesis (Recommendation) Arguments (Counter-arguments (Reinforcement of thesis) Recommendation	Issue Arguments from two or more perspectives Judgement/Position

3.6.3.1 - Stages of analytical and hortatory expositions.

There are slight differences in Humphrey (1996) and Coffin's (2004) descriptions of the stages of each school-based persuasive genre, yet both agree that analytical expositions involve three obligatory stages that perform separate functions: a thesis; arguments; and a reinforcement of thesis. In addition, analytical expositions feature two non-obligatory stages: an identification; and counter-arguments. Hortatory expositions feature a similar set of stages, yet also

require an obligatory recommendation as the concluding stage, while the reinforcement of thesis from the analytical exposition is considered non-obligatory in hortatory texts (Coffin, 2004; Humphrey, 1996).

The first non-obligatory stage of expository writing is the identification, in which "the phenomenon under investigation is identified and, if necessary, defined" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 126). Following this, the obligatory thesis stage "introduces the issue in question and states the writer's position on the issue" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 126). The thesis is a crucial aspect to include in a persuasive text, as it serves to reveal the type of persuasive genre being followed (Martin, 1989).

The expository writer then mounts a series of arguments "to convince the reader to accept a particular position on an issue" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 126). These arguments are generally separated into paragraphs. In secondary school, this process is more complex than in primary school, as secondary students must "assess, analyse and critically evaluate a range of evidence [to support their claims, while] refuting opposing arguments" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 119). For expository texts, secondary school students "typically state the arguments and evidence as if they have come directly from the writer, [making] the evidence appear as fact" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 147). For discussions, they "must appear to arrive at a thesis through a balanced evaluation of all points of view, [and as such] arguments and evidence tend to be reported as if they come from an outside source" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 147). Whether a writer attributes such

evidence to an outside source, endorses evidence presented by outside sources as right or correct, acknowledges where their evidence came from, or simply states evidence as fact with a series of bare assertions, such language choices are handled by the ENGAGEMENT system of APPRAISAL (Martin & White, 2005).

Following the arguments stage, the writer reaches the non-obligatory counter-arguments stage, where they may introduce opposing arguments and evidence simply to refute them, and in doing so strengthen their arguments (Coffin, 2004). As with the sourcing of evidence, many of the language choices used to introduce opposing arguments into a text are handled by the ENGAGEMENT system, which allows a writer to distance themselves from the opposing views, to counter and deny such views, and to position their readers to do likewise (Martin & White, 2005).

The final stage of an analytical exposition is known as the reinforcement of thesis, where "the writer reinforces his/her position" (Coffin, 2004, p. 9). This final stage "reaffirms the point of view stated in the thesis stage, however is often much stronger and more direct" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 126). As the arguments of a persuasive texts often build on each other to culminate in this final stage, the reinforcement of thesis is "crucial to the overall effectiveness of the text" (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994, p. 8). The final stage of a hortatory exposition is known as the recommendation, where the writer "recommends a course of action" (Coffin, 2004, p. 9) to address "the often practical problems which have arisen from the issue discussed . . . usually in the form of a

suggestion or a demand for action which may include a rationale" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 126). This section has outlined the stages of two forms of exposition. To provide a complete picture of the generic features of all three school-based persuasive genres, the following section focuses on the staging of discussions.

3.6.3.2 - Stages of discussions.

Discussions begin with an issue stage that "introduces and sets out the issue that is to be discussed . . . by describing an event or situation which has given rise to debate and a summary of the two or more positions" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 141). The writer does not need to define which side of the issue they side with at this initial stage (Coffin, 2004). Following this, the writer "explores the issue from two or more perspectives" through an arguments stage (Coffin, 2004, p. 9). In essence, the formula of the arguments stage of expository writing is doubled, with the writer arguing for and supporting two sides of the issue with evidence. Humphrey (1996) outlined how this process unfolds in practice:

> Each argument generally represents a different aspect of the issue and is presented first from one point of view and then from the other. Each argument is normally summarised first and, where relevant, elaborated with factually based evidence. After the evidence is presented, some critical comment is given, either refuting the validity of the evidence and/or giving the counter arguments. (p. 141)

Effective discussions aim to make one side seem more warranted than the other. A common technique used to achieve this is to address the position not

agreed with first to end with the more favoured side, "allowing the writer to address and refute the opposing arguments immediately" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 141). This represents a valued persuasive choice because "the reader is led through each of the opponent's arguments towards the argument with which the writer agrees" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 141). In advanced discussions, each argument concludes with a favoured side refuting the alternative, as "the judgements accumulate throughout the text so that the final thesis appears to be a logical outcome of the arguments stage" (Humphrey, 1996, p. 142). The final stage of a discussion is the judgement/position, where the writer states their final position on the issue.

3.6.3.3 - Persuasive genres and successful texts.

To this point, little research has investigated links between young students' persuasive genre choices and the effectiveness of their arguments. At the tertiary level, a study by Coffin (2004) investigated the text structures used by non-native English speakers to write arguments as part of the International English Language Testing System (hereafter IELTS) competency test. Coffin (2004) aimed to discover whether the staging of students' texts impacted on the scores they were awarded. The findings revealed that "argument structures which lacked a thesis or an issue stage, or included limited evidence in their argument stage, were concentrated amongst low-scoring candidates" (Coffin, 2004, p. 15), even though the scoring rubric lacked any structure-related criteria. While high scoring texts followed the staging of persuasive genres, "it [was] not

necessarily an absence of argument structure which [explained] a low score, [as] several low scoring candidates followed conventional English argument structures, showing that the reason for their low marks was related to their lack of control of other linguistic features" (p. 15). These findings suggest that further investigation into other persuasive language choices made in high scoring persuasive texts is warranted. Despite the importance of a genre-specific focus on persuasive writing in Australian schools, more can be discovered about high achieving students' persuasive language choices by investigating their choices at other levels.

Any system or principle from the three metafunctions could be used to provide insight into students' persuasive language choices, yet the interpersonal systems of APPRAISAL[4] were selected as they concern "the subjective presence of writers/speakers in texts as they adopt stances towards both the material they present and those with whom they communicate" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 1). This broad definition of APPRAISAL relates strongly with the purpose of persuasive writing, in taking a stance on an issue and constructing arguments that will influence the minds and actions of readers.

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[4] In the SFL tradition, concept names are often represented in small caps to distinguish them from the regular word meanings (e.g., attitude and ATTITUDE).

3.7 - Resources of APPRAISAL

APPRAISAL is "a particular approach to exploring, describing and explaining the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, and to manage interpersonal positioning and relationships" (White, 2001, p. 1). The resources of APPRAISAL can be used to position readers to feel certain ways or engage in certain behaviours. As such, they play an important role in interactions of persuasion. Using the resources of APPRAISAL, speakers and writers "construe for themselves particular authorial identities or personae . . . align or disalign themselves with actual or potential respondents, and . . . construct for their texts an intended or ideal audience" (White, 2001, p. 1). Regarding the notions of metafunctions and realisation, the APPRAISAL systems function as interpersonal resources located at the layer of discourse semantics. They are categorised into three systems, known as ENGAGEMENT, ATTITUDE, and GRADUATION, and are distinguished at the broadest level in the following system network (Martin & White, 2005):

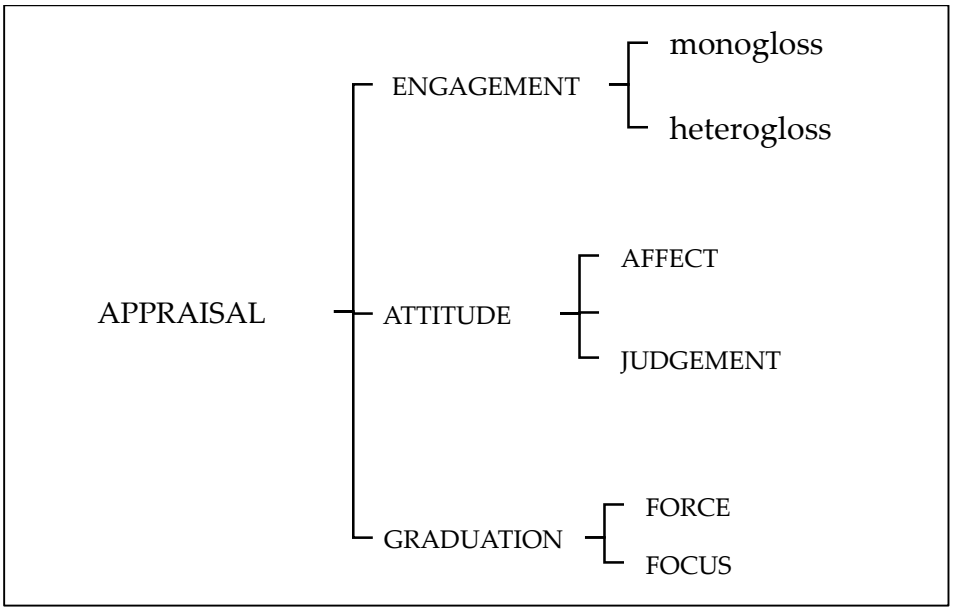

Figure 4. The APPRAISAL systems (Martin & White, 2005).

The APPRAISAL systems represent "three axes along which a speaker's [or] writer's intersubjective stance may vary" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 1). This thesis makes use of the ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT systems, as they involve the linguistic resources used to evaluate phenomena positively or negatively, and to position readers to do the same, making them particularly relevant for the analysis of persuasive texts. These systems are now outlined in more depth, starting with ATTITUDE.

3.7.1 - ATTITUDE.

ATTITUDE concerns the linguistic resources available to speakers and writers to express feelings, make judgements and evaluate non-human phenomena (Martin & White, 2005). The ATTITUDE system network represents an appropriate tool for the analysis of texts when the focus is on making visible

how things are evaluated positively and/or negatively. The system network is presented in full in the following figure:

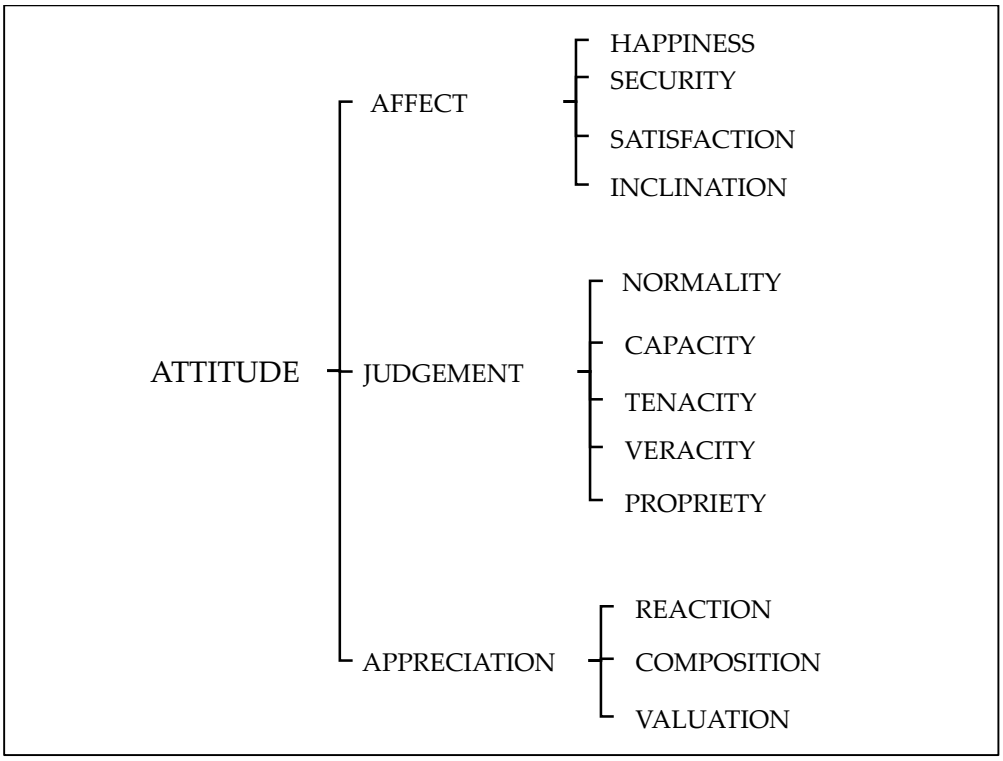

Figure 5. The ATTITUDE system network (Martin & White, 2005).

Martin and White (2005) outlined three primary domains that make up ATTITUDE: AFFECT – concerned with "registering positive and negative feelings" (p. 42); JUDGEMENT – dealing with "attitudes towards behaviours, which we admire or criticise, praise or condemn" (p. 42); and APPRECIATION – involving "evaluations of semiotic and natural phenomena, according to the ways they are valued or not in a given field" (p. 43). The subsequent sections explain each subcategory and resource in greater detail.

3.7.1.1 - AFFECT.

The resources of AFFECT are concerned with expressing positive or negative feelings through four sets of meanings: HAPPINESS; SECURITY; SATISFACTION; and INCLINATION (Martin & White, 2005) (See Figure 7).

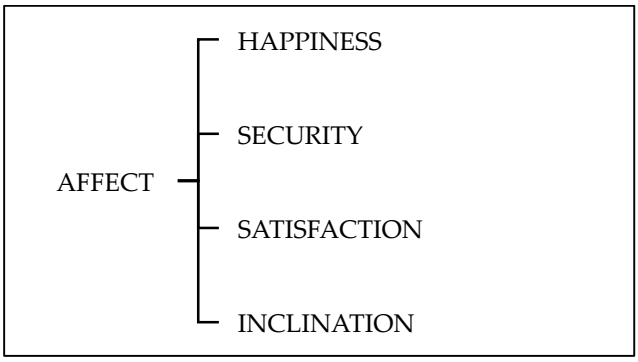

Figure 6. AFFECT meanings.

The first – HAPPINESS – involves "the moods of feeling happy or sad, and the possibility of directing these feelings at a trigger by liking or disliking it" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 49). Some example statements that would be coded as instances of positive HAPPINESS include the following: *he feels jubilant*; *she loves him*; or *he laughed*, while negative HAPPINESS would include: *he feels miserable*; *she hates him*; or *he wailed.* Following HAPPINESS, the next set of meanings that make up AFFECT is known as SECURITY, which involves "feelings of peace and anxiety in relation to our environs, including the people sharing them with us" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 49). Examples of positive SECURITY include meanings like: *she feels confident*; *he trusts her*; or *she is committed to the role*, while examples of negative SECURITY include: *she feels uneasy*; *he was startled*; *she was restless*; or *he*

fainted. The third set of meanings is known as SATISFACTION, and involves "feelings of achievement and frustration in relation to the activities in which we are engaged, including our roles as both participants and spectators" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 50). Examples of positive SATISFACTION would include meanings like: *they were absorbed in the task*; *he was impressed with the event*; or s*he was thrilled with the result*, while negative SATISFACTION would include: *they were bored with the task*; *he was sick of the event*; or *she felt jaded about the result*. Lastly, INCLINATION involves surges of behaviour and dispositions that relate to fear or desire, for instance: *the sound made him fearful*; or, *she longed for her daughter* (Martin & White, 2005).

3.7.1.2 - JUDGEMENT.

JUDGEMENT is concerned with the linguistic resources that evaluate human (and human-like) behaviours positively and negatively. According to Martin and White (2005), "JUDGEMENTS can be divided into those dealing with *social esteem* and those oriented to *social sanction* (p. 52). JUDGEMENTS of social esteem generally involve admiring or criticising a person for talents they do or do not possess, while JUDGEMENTS of social sanction generally involve praising or condemning a person for their values or morals. The category of social esteem is made up by three sets of meanings: NORMALITY; CAPACITY; and TENACITY, while social sanction is made up by a further two sets: VERACITY; and PROPRIETY (See Figure 8).

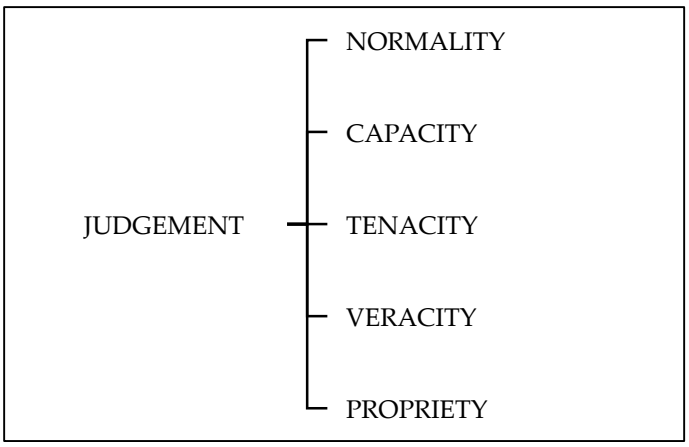

Figure 7. JUDGEMENT meanings.

NORMALITY concerns meanings of how usual or unusual a person is, with positive evaluations including: *lucky*; *fortunate*; *normal*; *stable*; *fashionable*; and *unsung*, and negative evaluations including: *unlucky*; *odd*; *eccentric*; *unpredictable*; *dated*; and *obscure*. CAPACITY concerns meanings related to how capable a person is, with positive evaluations including: *powerful*; *healthy*; *mature*; *witty*; *humorous*; *gifted*; *sensible*; *educated*; *accomplished*; and *successful*, and negative evaluations including: *weak*; *wimpy*; *sick*; *crippled*; *childish*; *dull*; *stupid*; *foolish*; *illiterate*; *incompetent*; and *unsuccessful*. The last type of meaning categorised under social esteem is TENACITY, which concerns how dependable a person is. Positive evaluations of TENACITY include: *brave*; *heroic*; *patient*; *wary*; *careful*; *thorough*; *resolute*; *reliable*; *faithful*; and *flexible*, while negative evaluations include: *cowardly*; *impatient*; *hasty*; *reckless*; *distracted*; *unreliable*; *disloyal*; and *stubborn*.

Under social sanction, VERACITY concerns how truthful or honest a person is, with positive evaluations including: *honest*; *credible*; *direct*; and *tactful*, while

negative evaluations include: *deceitful*; *deceptive*; *manipulative*; and *blunt*. The final type of meaning that makes up JUDGEMENT is PROPRIETY, and concerns whether a person's ethics are beyond reproach or not (Martin & White, 2005). Positive evaluations of PROPRIETY include: *moral*; *ethical*; *kind*; *fair*; *modest*; *respectful*; and *generous*, while negative evaluations include: *evil*; *corrupt*; *unfair*; *insensitive*; *cruel*; *rude*; *irreverent*; and *greedy*.

3.7.1.3 - APPRECIATION.

The third system of ATTITUDE is termed APPRECIATION, and concerns "feelings as propositions about the value of things – what they are worth or not" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 45). Martin and White (2005) divided APPRECIATION into three sets of meanings: REACTION; COMPOSITION; and VALUATION (See Figure 9). As with AFFECT and JUDGEMENT, positive and negative evaluations can be made with resources of APPRECIATION, though they are focused on evaluating non-human phenomena.

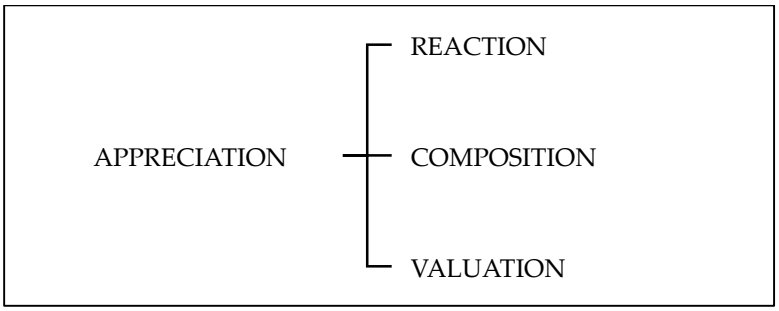

Figure 8. APPRECIATION meanings.

When exploring positive or negative REACTIONS about non-human phenomena, the questions *did it grab me*, or *did I like it* can be considered (Martin

& White, 2005). Positive evaluations of REACTION include: *arresting*; *engaging*; *exciting*; *remarkable*; *sensational*; *good*; *beautiful*; and *appealing*, while negative evaluations include: *dull*; *boring*; *uninviting*; *predictable*; *nasty*; *bad*; *ugly*; *repulsive*; and *revolting*. When positively or negatively evaluating the COMPOSITION of something, the questions *did it hang well together,* or *was it hard to follow* can be considered (Martin & White, 2005). Positive evaluations of COMPOSITION include: *balanced*; *unified*; *consistent*; *considered*; *logical*; *simple*; *pure*; *clear*; *precise*; *intricate*; and *detailed*, while negative evaluations include: *discordant*; *irregular*; *uneven*; *disorganised*; *unclear*; *plain*; and *simplistic*. Finally, when dealing with VALUATIONS, the question *was it worthwhile* can be considered (Martin & White, 2005). In this case, positive evaluations include: *profound*; *innovative*; *original*; *creative*; *unique*; *genuine*; *worthwhile*; and *effective*, while negative evaluations include: *shallow*: *conventional*; *everyday*; *fake*; *worthless*; *pricey*; and *useless*. The example evaluations listed in the previous paragraphs are not a comprehensive list of all possible meanings, they are simply intended to illustrate the sorts of meanings dealt with under the ATTITUDE system, and how these are categorised into subsystems.

3.7.1.4 - Inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

A key feature of attitudinal meanings is their ability to be realised directly (inscribed) or indirectly (invoked) in texts (White, 2002; Gales, 2010). When inscribed, this involves the use of explicit attitudinal lexis, as in the examples of each subsystem listed in the previous paragraphs. Alternatively,

invoked ATTITUDE does not feature explicit lexical elements that carry attitudinal values, and is rather realised via neutral wordings that have specific values within the text's context (White, 2002). The following example highlights this difference:

Table 10. Examples of Inscribed and Invoked ATTITUDE

Inscribed: Jane is strong.
Invoked: Jane lifts 80kg weights with ease.

Both instances convey the meaning that Jane is strong, although only the first does so with the use of explicit attitudinal lexis – *strong*. However, in a context where lifting 80kg weights with ease was not a culturally impressive feat, the positive attitudinal meaning associated with Jane's CAPACITY in the second example would not be realised. For this reason, Bednarek (2010) argued that the background of the reader largely determines the interpretation of invoked meanings. As every reader comes to the text from a different background, the notion that attitudinal meanings can be invoked by wordings from the ideational metafunction "introduces an undesirable element of subjectivity into the analysis" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 62). However, to completely avoid invoked meanings would suggest "ideational meaning is selected without regard to the attitudes it engenders" a position described by Martin and White (2005) as "untenable" (p. 62). The intended meaning of invoked ATTITUDE is usually quite clear, as inscribed ATTITUDE "launches and

subsequently reinforces a prosody which directs readers in their evaluation of non-attitudinal ideational material under its scope" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 64). In this way, the use of explicit ATTITUDE provides the reader with clues about how to interpret more subjective meanings.

Invoked attitudinal meanings can be either provoked through the use of lexical metaphors, or invited through flagging or affording. Flagging involves the intensification of core lexical items or the use of counter-expectancy to flag that attitudinal values are at stake, while affording involves the use of ideational meanings that carry specific cultural values (Martin & White, 2005). Martin and White (2005) drew the following examples of invoked ATTITUDE from a speech by Paul Keating about the treatment of Indigenous Australians by European settlers:

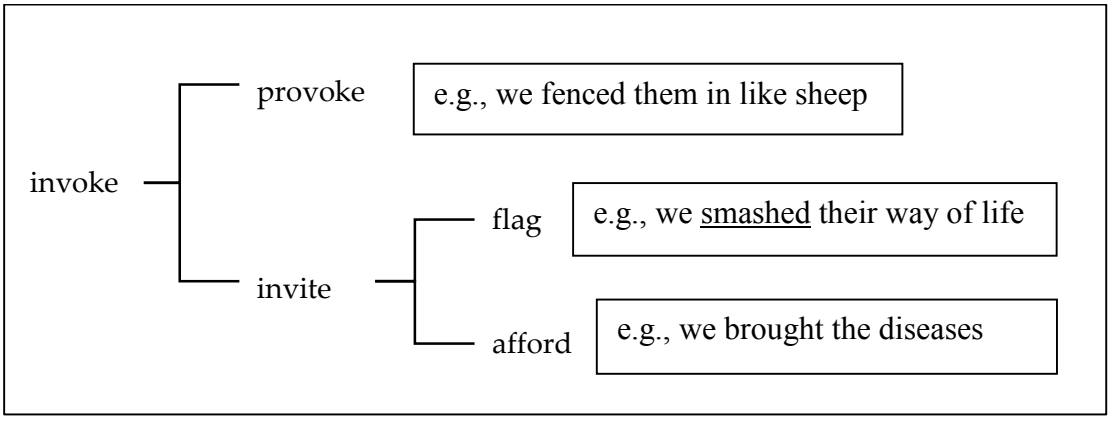

Figure 9. Methods of invoking ATTITUDE (Martin & White, 2005, p. 67).

The notion of invocation highlights how attitudinal meanings are still often conveyed, even when explicit attitudinal lexis is not present. Invocation

plays an important role in persuasive communication, and this will be explored further in Section 3.8.6.2.

3.7.1.5 - Prosody.

A further feature of attitudinal meanings is how they tend to create patterns of positive or negative evaluations across texts. Prosodies occur when attitudinal meanings "spread out and colour a phase of discourse as speakers and writers take up a stance oriented to AFFECT, JUDGEMENT or APPRECIATION" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 43). This spreading out or colouring was initially referred to as *sprawling* across a text by Martin (1996), as the pattern of attitudinal meanings establish a particular mood. Such an effect is highlighted in the following excerpt from the work of Hood (2004b):

> Explanations for the apparent *lack of critique* in students' writing are generally framed in the literature in terms of *naivety, unwillingness,* or *incapacity*. Groom (2000), for example, suggests that many *struggling* student writers do *not* have a *clear* understanding of the nature and function of argument as an academic genre.

These two sentences contain seven negative evaluations of students who struggle to write academic texts. Instead of considering each evaluation in isolation, prosodic patterns of attitudinal meanings such as the above example highlight how writers spread these meanings across whole texts. According to Halliday (1979), interpersonal meanings are "strung throughout the clause as a continuous motif or colouring . . . [referred] to as prosodic, since the meaning is

distributed like a prosody throughout a continuous stretch of discourse" (p. 67). Prosodies of evaluative language choices "are not reducible to constituent parts but resonate across the text as it unfolds in time" (Zappavigna, Cléirigh, Dwyer, & Martin, 2010, p. 150), often making their boundaries difficult to determine (Macken-Horarik, 2003).

There are also implications for prosodic patternings when attitudinal meanings are inscribed or invoked. As described above, attitudinal meanings can be inscribed directly through the use of explicit attitudinal lexis (e.g., Jane is strong), or invoked through ideational wordings that have certain values in the context of the text (e.g., Jane lifts heavy weights). Regarding prosodies, inscriptions of ATTITUDE "colour more of a text than their local grammatical environment circumscribes . . . [signposting] how to read the ideational selections that surround them" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 63). The use of inscribed ATTITUDE "launches and subsequently reinforces a prosody which directs readers in their evaluation of non-attitudinal ideational material under its scope" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 64). In this way, inscribed ATTITUDE guides readers to interpret meanings that are not explicitly attitudinal, thus reducing the subjective nature of invoked meanings (Martin, 1992).

To summarise, the linguistic resources of ATTITUDE are used to express feelings, judge behaviours, and evaluate non-human phenomena. These concerns are organised into three subsystems of ATTITUDE (See Figure 6), consisting of resources that can be realised directly with the use of explicit

attitudinal lexis, or indirectly by provoking or inviting a positive or negative response from the reader without the use of explicit attitudinal lexis. Attitudinal meanings tend to spread across texts, forming prosodies of positive or negative evaluations. For its relevance to the investigation of persuasive language choices, the ATTITUDE system was selected as an analytical lens for the present study.

3.7.2 - ENGAGEMENT.

The ENGAGEMENT system "deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). According to White (2001), ENGAGEMENT incorporates a range concepts discussed in the literature, including modality (Palmer, 2001), evidentiality (Aikhenvald, 2004) and metadiscursives (Crismore, 1989; Hyland, 1994, 1996, 2000). Inspired by Mikhail Bakhtin's (1981) perspective on dialogism and heteroglossia, these concepts are organised under the heading of ENGAGEMENT, as they:

> . . . provide the means for speakers [and] writers to take a stance towards the various points-of-view or social positioning being referenced by the text and thereby to position themselves with respect to the other social subjects who hold these positions. (White, 2003, p. 259)

The ENGAGEMENT system is informed by Bakhtin's (1981) notion that all verbal communication is dialogic, in that to speak or write reveals the influence of what has been said previously. Led by this perspective, Martin and White (2005) focused on the interaction between speakers or writers and utterances

made previously in the same space that support or oppose what they are communicating. The ENGAGEMENT system is therefore concerned with the degree that speakers and writers acknowledge and engage with these previous utterances, whether presented as "standing with, as standing against, as undecided, or as neutral with respect to these other speakers and their value positions" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 93). In addition, Martin and White (2005) spoke about the anticipatory aspect of a text, of the signals used by speakers and writers to show how they expect their audience to respond to the value positions advanced by the textual voice. Speakers and writers can present such value positions as though they can be taken for granted by their audience, or as though they are likely to be questioned or resisted.

The ENGAGEMENT system network provides a "systematic account of how such positionings are achieved linguistically . . . [and] the means to characterise a speaker [or] writer's interpersonal style and their rhetorical strategies" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 93). The system network is presented in full as follows, and each subsystem and resource is explained in subsequent sections:

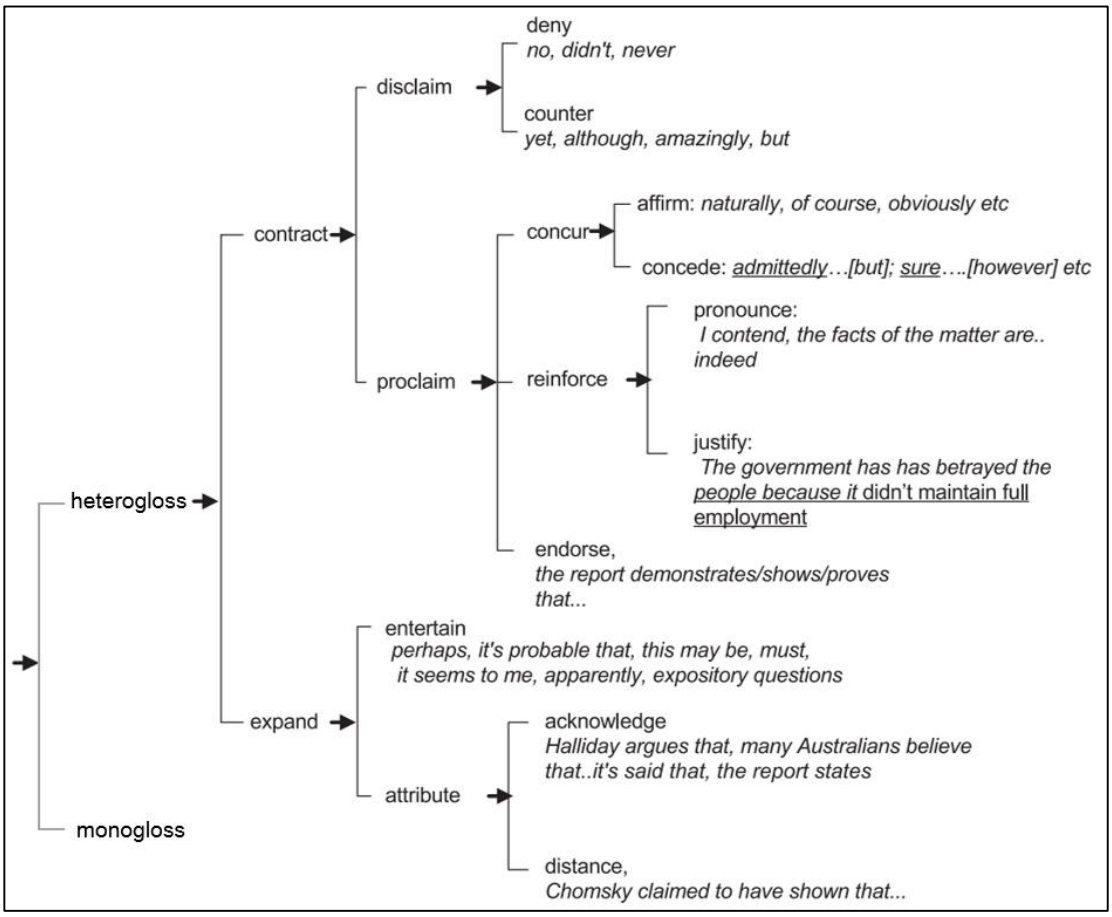

Figure 10. The ENGAGEMENT system network (White, 2012a, p. 65).

The first broad distinction when working with the ENGAGEMENT system network distinguishes heteroglossic utterances – those that expand or contract space for dialogue within a text – from monoglossic utterances – those that allow no dialogic space for alternative perspectives (Miller, 2004) (See Figure 12).

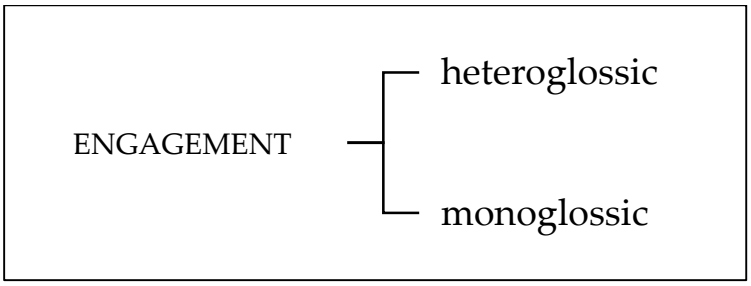

Figure 11. The ENGAGEMENT system's first line of distinction.

Heteroglossic utterances feature wordings that engage in various ways with positions beyond that of the textual voice. While all heteroglossic utterances acknowledge the possibility of more than one position, authors can contract or expand the space for dialogue (this is the second line of distinction), to increase or decrease the difficulty for readers to object to a given position freely (Martin & White, 2005). ENGAGEMENT resources that contract dialogic space while still acknowledging it have been categorised by White (2003) as PROCLAMATIONS and DISCLAMATIONS, with each category comprised by multiple linguistic resources.

3.7.2.1 - Contracting dialogic space.

White (2003) stated that under PROCLAMATION:

> . . . the textual voice conveys a heightened personal investment in the viewpoint being advanced and thereby explicitly indicates an interest in advancing that viewpoint, typically against some opposed alternative – hence the term *proclaim*. (p. 269)

For example, propositions that begin with *of course, obviously, the truth is that,* or *there can be no doubt that,* are all PROCLAMATIONS, as they indicate the author's heightened personal investment in what is being communicated (Martin & White, 2005). There are three types of PROCLAMATIONS: CONCURRENCES, REINFORCEMENTS and ENDORSEMENTS.

CONCURRENCES engage with more than one position, yet use specific wordings like *of course*, and *naturally* to contract dialogic space for alternative viewpoints (i.e., through AFFIRM). An example can be seen with the statement: *of course young people are lazy*. Including *of course* presents this position as being common knowledge, adding an interpersonal cost for readers to object (Martin & White, 2005). CONCURRENCES also involve formulations by which the writer acknowledges the existence of an alternative perspective (i.e., through CONCEDE) before dismissing it with their own perspective, as in the statement: *admittedly there are also some lazy adults, however…* In this case, the author concedes the alternative perspective before going to counter it, effectively forfeiting some argumentative ground only to retake it in the subsequent move.

REINFORCEMENTS differ from CONCURRENCES as they involve either "the foregrounding in some way of the subjective involvement of the textual voice" (White, 2003, p. 270) (i.e., through PRONOUNCEMENT), or the reinforcing of a proposition against alternative perspectives with evidence via the use of "connectives such as *therefore* and related locutions" (White, 2012a, p. 64) (i.e., through JUSTIFICATION). Examples of such REINFORCEMENTS include the

statements: *I believe young people are lazy*, and: *young people are lazy because they work less than adults* (i.e., a JUSTIFICATION). The interpersonal cost associated with objecting to either proposition remains, however they differ from the CONCURRENCES in not assuming an alignment with the reader.

By contrast, ENDORSEMENTS are "formulations by which propositions sourced to external sources are construed by the authorial voice as correct, valid, undeniable or otherwise maximally warrantable" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 126), as in the proposition: *Thompson inarguably demonstrates that young people today are lazy*. ENDORSEMENTS like this are dialogically contractive as they align the reader with the value position advanced by the text (Martin & White, 2005), yet still heteroglossic, as it suggests the potential for multiple viewpoints, including Thompson's. To summarise PROCLAMATIONS, White (2003) described the three types as:

> . . . dialogically contractive in that, thereby, the textual voice puts on display its personal investment in the viewpoint being advanced and accordingly increases the interpersonal cost for any who would advance some dialogic alternative (p. 271).

Aside from PROCLAMATIONS, the contractive category of DISCLAMATION comprises the resources of DENIAL and COUNTERING. White (2003) explained DENIAL as "negation in the broadest sense" (p. 271), as in the proposition: *Providing financial incentives will not make young people less lazy*. While the author does not state the alternate proposition (that financial incentives would make

young people less lazy), the denial acts as a response, implying the alternate viewpoint. COUNTERING is explained by Martin and White (2005) as "a sub-type of DISCLAMATION [that] includes formulations which represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting, and thereby *countering*, a proposition which would have been expected in its place" (p. 120). An example is evident in the statement: *Some argue that financial incentives will make young people less lazy, however literature surrounding motivation suggests this would only make matters worse*. In this case, the reader is positioned to side with the writer's point of view by the direct countering of a dialogically opposing position. The dialogically contractive resources of ENGAGEMENT are depicted below in Figure 13.

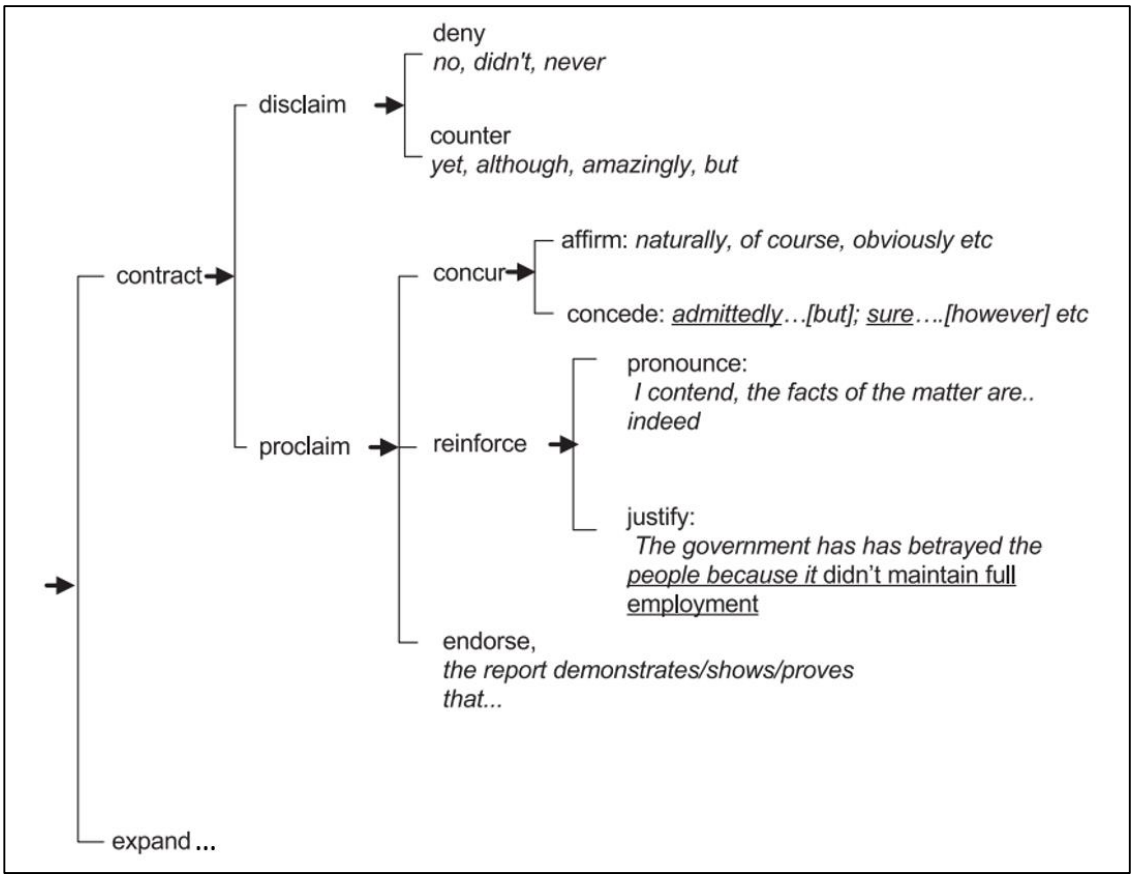

Figure 12. Contractive ENGAGEMENT resources (White, 2012a).

3.7.2.2 - Expanding dialogic space.

Speakers and authors allow for "dialogically alternative positions and voices" by using dialogically expansive resources (Martin & White, 2005, p. 102). The first line of distinction under expansion is drawn between the resources of ENTERTAINMENT[5] and ATTRIBUTION. Propositions that ENTERTAIN are "wordings

[5] This semantic domain covers such concepts as *modality* (Palmer, 1986; Coates, 1983) and *evidentiality* (Chafe & Nichols, 1986).

by which the authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions and thereby makes dialogic space for those possibilities" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 104). In this way the author allows for alternative dialogic positions, as in the example statement: *If financial incentives will not make young people less lazy, perhaps we should consider other approaches*. Here the word *perhaps* expands dialogic space by implying this is one of many possibilities, and thereby entertains these alternative possibilities.

The other dialogically expansive resources are those of ATTRIBUTION, which involve the "grounding of viewpoints in the subjecthood of an external voice" (White, 2003, p. 273), through the subcategories of ACKNOWLEDGING – which is modally neutral – or DISTANCING – which casts doubt on a proposition. When explaining how these subcategories of ATTRIBUTION are dialogically expansive, White (2003) stated:

> By ATTRIBUTING the viewpoint to an external voice, the author thereby represents it as contingent and individual, since it is explicitly grounded in the individual subjecthood of but one speaker. The viewpoint is therefore but one possible position, given the diversity of viewpoints which typically operate among different individual speakers. To ATTRIBUTE any given viewpoint in this way is to open up the dialogic space to alternative positions. (p. 273)

An example of ACKNOWLEDGEMENT – the first type of ATTRIBUTION – can be seen in the statement: *Johnson stated that young people today are lazy*. An

external source is acknowledged neutrally, without any perceivable positive or negative evaluation. If made through the subcategory of DISTANCING, which acts to case doubt of the external source, the statement would read as: *Johnson claimed that young people today are lazy*. The use of *claimed* here acts to cast doubt on Johnson's credibility. The categories and subcategories of dialogic expansion are depicted in Figure 14.

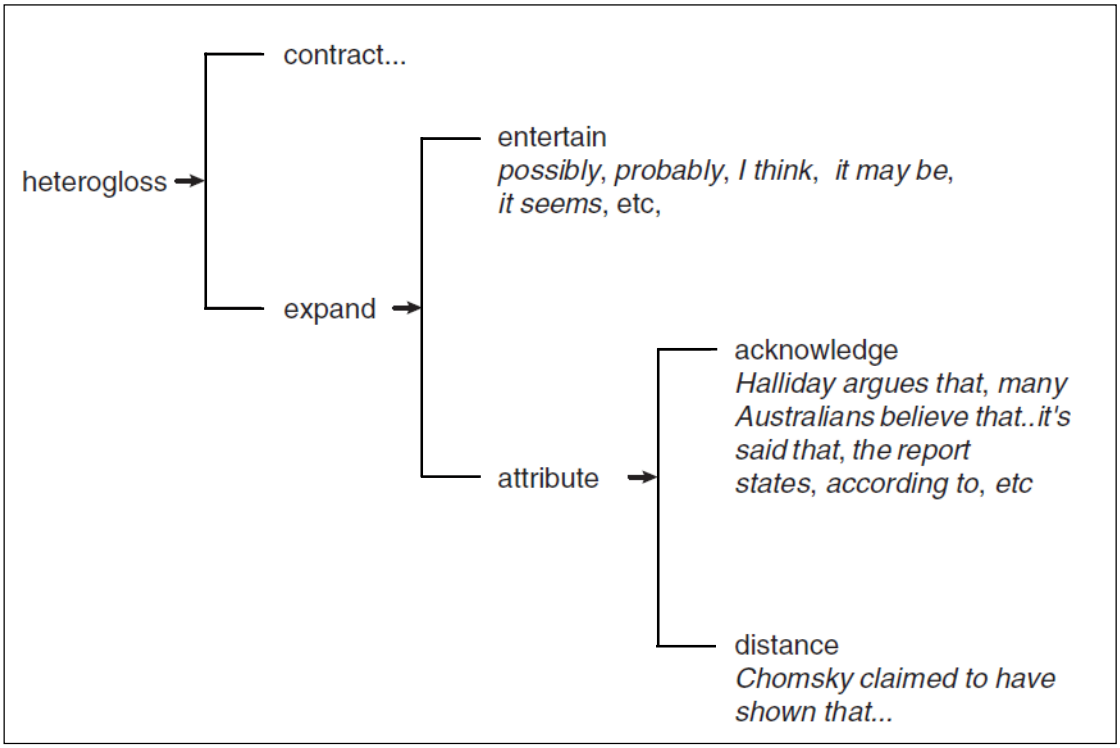

Figure 13. Expansive ENGAGEMENT resources (Martin & White, 2005, p. 117).

While Martin and White (2005) represented dialogically expansive and dialogically contractive resources in a binary, *either or* relationship, other researchers have represented these ENGAGEMENT resources along a cline between the most contracting and the most expanding (Humphrey, 2008;

Körner, 2000). Representing ENGAGEMENT resources in this way provides greater potential to map dialogistic positioning across texts, and as such, a cline of ENGAGEMENT resources will be established in the Methodology Chapter for the subsequent analysis of student texts.

The heteroglossic resources described above acknowledge and engage with what has been said or written previously, contracting or expanding dialogic space to position readers in a variety of ways with respect to different viewpoints. The opposite of such utterances are monoglossic, or bare assertions (Bakhtin, 1981). Monoglossic utterances "do not overtly reference other voices or recognise alternative positions" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 99), but are instead construed as single voiced and undialogised. Making a bare assertion involves a speaker or writer presenting a proposition as holding no dialogistic alternatives that need to be acknowledged or engaged with. An example of this can be seen in the statement: *Young people today are lazy*. Unlike the heteroglossic examples listed above, this proposition provides no room for the existence of other value positions. In scientific discourse, Myers (1990) observed that bare assertions were rarely statements of new knowledge, but rather facts and established knowledge. In this way, stating new knowledge or controversial points as bare assertions can make it more difficult for readers to side with the viewpoint being presented. Bare assertions frequently operate with the assumption of agreement between the textual voice and the reader, yet their use in certain

social contexts is often disputed by readers (White, 2003), for instance the example listed above would likely be disputed in a range of social contexts.

In summary, the ENGAGEMENT system network is concerned with linguistic resources that:

> . . . position the speaker/writer with respect to the value position being advanced and with respect to potential responses to that value position . . . [doing so by] quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, denying, countering, affirming and so on. (Martin & White, 2005, p. 36)

Such concerns are relevant to the writing of persuasive texts, as writers present and attempt to align readers with one (or more) point(s) of view on an issue. The ENGAGEMENT system is useful for the examination of persuasive language choices, as it indicates how authors engage with different views and position readers as discourse participants. Persuasive writing involves "comparing and contrasting positions, expressing degrees of agreement and disagreement, and acknowledging and refuting other points of view" (Swain, 2010, p. 296), and ENGAGEMENT plays a vital role in achieving all of these processes.

The GRADUATION system of APPRAISAL was not utilised to analyse persuasive language choices in this study. This omission is justified in Section 5.3.1.5 of the Methodology Chapter.

3.8 - Student Use of APPRAISAL Resources

Previous research has made visible interpersonal language choices in a wide variety of genres, including narrative texts (Martin & Plum, 1997), print media texts (Iedema, 1997; White, 1997), and in history discourse (Coffin, 1997, 2004), yet the present study represents the first investigation into such phenomena for the school-based persuasive texts. The first major attempt to map the development of children's writing skills from the SFL perspective was made by Frances Christie and Beverly Derewianka in 2008. Their project involved the analysis of over 2,000 texts written by students from six to 18 years of age. This project was particularly important as:

> The great majority of studies on writing development focus on the early years of infancy and childhood. Much less attention has been paid to writing development from late childhood into adolescence . . . [and] only a handful of studies have surveyed writing development across the years of schooling. (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 2)

The selected texts were all assessed as being "good – or at least promising – by their teachers or examiners, thereby providing a benchmark of what is possible at each phase of development" (p. 6). The authors spent considerable time unpacking the use of SFL concepts like nominalisation, lexical density, grammatical metaphor, and APPRAISAL, investigating students' writing of a range of genres found in the subjects of English, history and science. In their findings, Christie and Derewianka (2008) proposed four broad phases of writing

development, accompanied by descriptions of skills students tend to exhibit in each phase (See Table 4).

Table 11. Four Phases of Writing Development (Christie & Derewianka, 2008)

Early childhood	Late childhood – Early adolescence	Mid adolescence	Late adolescence
6 to 8 years	9 to 12 years	13 to 15 years	16 to 18 years +

While the authors unpacked a range of genres of writing for each phase of development, they only focused on persuasive texts written by students in the *late adolescence* phase and only for subject history. To justify why their study did not unpack persuasive texts composed by younger writers, Christie and Derewianka (2008) stated, "we have some evidence in our corpus for the writing of expositions and discussions by early adolescence in history, though they gain greater importance as adolescents move up the years of secondary school" (p. 133). They argued that the late adolescence phase featured "a major development in the recognition of alternative viewpoints and conflicting accounts" (p. 148), while early childhood students provided "little or no consideration of other views or possibilities" (p. 230). Similar findings were discussed in the work of Christie (2012), though this still lacked descriptions of the language choices made by younger students as they attempted to persuade others, and so a developmental trajectory of such choices was hard to establish.

Both sources provide starting points for the instruction of recounts, narratives and other key genres in primary and secondary classrooms, yet there still remains a gap in the developmental trajectory of persuasive writing from the early childhood to mid-adolescence phases. When students are expected to learn about persuasive texts from as early as the first grade, and expected to write persuasively in the second, the lack of research into younger students' persuasive language choices represents a significant gap in SFL literature.

A small number of studies provide some insight into the persuasive language choices of young students. For instance, a study by Thomas and Thomas (2012) highlighted the range and frequency of ENGAGEMENT resources deployed by 15 Tasmanian Year 5 students who scored most highly on the 2011 NAPLAN test. As these students' ages would place them between the late-childhood and early adolescence phases of writing development, it was expected they would rely mainly on monoglossic utterances in their arguments, in line with suggestions made by Christie and Derewianka (2008). Yet the study revealed that they drew on a wide range of resources to expand and contract dialogic space in their attempts to persuade others. Overall the students deployed 168 heteroglossically engaged utterances, compared to 117 monoglossic utterances, with the heterogloss mainly consisting of ENTERTAIN, DENIAL and AFFIRM resources. While their texts featured many instances of heteroglossic resources, again there was a lack of resources such as ATTRIBUTING,

ENDORSING or DISTANCING to draw other voices into their texts, which again highlighted this as an area for future development.

In another study, Derewianka (2007) unpacked the use of APPRAISAL resources in four texts written by an early secondary, a middle secondary, a late secondary and a tertiary student for the subject of history. The texts all focused on the area of Nazi Germany and were assessed as exemplary by the teacher or assessor in each context. The research found the early secondary student deployed a range of resources from each subsystem of ATTITUDE, yet it was not until middle secondary that these resources were deployed in the service of argumentation. The late secondary and tertiary texts were notable in not featuring resources of AFFECT, which had been present in the early and middle secondary texts. This finding supports research by Hood (2004, 2006, 2010) on the types of attitudinal resources typical (and not typical) of academic arguments. While the texts featured inscribed ATTITUDE, the majority of attitudinal meanings were realised via invocation.

On ENGAGEMENT, Derewianka (2007) found that the early secondary text was "largely monoglossic", while the middle secondary student demonstrated a "higher level of awareness of participating in a discourse community" (p. 162). The late secondary student appeared "much more conscious of the need to negotiate meanings with the reader" (p. 163), while the tertiary student revealed "an awareness of the problematic, constructed and intersubjective nature of meaning-making . . . [with] other voices explicitly drawn into the discussion,

interpreted, analysed, critiqued and played off against each other" (p. 163). While the texts were not all written to persuade readers, following the staging of particular persuasive writing genres, this study usefully showed that "even in the adolescent years, learners are extending their interpersonal repertoires as they tune into the shared value system and institutionalised norms of secondary schooling" (p. 163). While this and the other mentioned studies provide insight into how high achieving students use APPRAISAL resources to evaluate a range of phenomena, they also highlight that much still remains to be discovered about this issue.

While much remains to be discovered about the use of APPRAISAL resources by primary and secondary school students for persuasive purposes, research has sought to understand their use of APPRAISAL resources for other purposes in a range of subject areas (Christie & Derewianka, 2008). While only focusing on the persuasive writing of students from 16 years of age and older, Christie and Derewianka's (2008) research into younger students' use of APPRAISAL resources for other genres advanced current thinking on the development of young people's interpersonal writing skills. Their findings suggest the sorts of evaluative language choices students are likely to make at different phases of development, and these findings are discussed in the following section, beginning with writing in the early childhood phase.

3.8.1 - Writing in the Early Childhood Phase.

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008), students in the early childhood phase show "simple attitudinal expression . . . [that] (when present) is mainly simple AFFECT, expressed in adjectives, occasionally with adverbs of intensity" (p. 218). When looking specifically at response writing, a genre typically found in subject English, their texts "normally involve simple AFFECT, through APPRECIATION (to do with qualities of texts), [while] JUDGEMENT (to do with writers, or sometimes their characters) also appears in early texts, expressed in simple lexis, such as adjectives" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 84). For genres of writing typically found in subject history, early childhood students offer "early expressions of APPRECIATION of events and phenomena," while the use of APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT together does not become apparent until adolescence (p. 113). In addition, texts written for history do not usually feature evaluative language, as "students record or describe historical events without passion," while their writing for science features similar "restrained attitudinal expression" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 181). In terms of ENGAGEMENT, regardless of subject area or genre, these students have a "limited awareness of audience" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). They stated:

> Young learners generally lack a strong sense of authorial identity in their writing and a sensitivity to the needs of an unknown, distant reader . . . [while] older learners are more able to establish an authorial presence and engage with diverse perspectives and possibilities. (p. 15)

As a result, the authors found that monoglossic utterances were commonplace in early childhood writing. A summary of these findings are presented in the following table:

Table 12. APPRAISAL Choices in the Early Childhood Phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221)

ATTITUDE	• Attitudinal expression (when present) mainly simple AFFECT; • ATTITUDE expressed in adjectives.
ENGAGEMENT	• Limited awareness of audience.

3.8.2 - Writing in the Late Childhood – Early Adolescence Phase.

In the late childhood-early adolescences phase, students possess a greater ability to use a range of attitudinal resources (Christie & Derewianka, 2008). In this phase, students tend to write in third person more often than younger students, and begin to make use of modal verbs (Christie & Derewianka, 2008). Their writing features "attitudinal expression in adverbs, as well as adjectives and a greater range of adverbs of intensity" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). Although "attitudinal expression is more evident than in earlier years,"

there is no significant increase in science (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). When focusing on biographical recounts, a genre typically found in subject history, Christie and Derewianka (2008) found that these students mainly write in the third person to build "the experience of past figures, [expressing] APPRECIATION of events or phenomena and some JUDGEMENT of historical figures," while neglecting AFFECT (p. 230). Yet for the genre of empathetic biographies, also typical of subject history, the students most commonly use first person, and "a range of lexical resources to express APPRECIATION of events or entities, and some AFFECT," while neglecting JUDGEMENT, showing that the students make different language choices to meet the specific needs of a genre (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 230).

For ENGAGEMENT, it was found that for subject English and history, late childhood – early adolescence students demonstrate a "more marked awareness of audience and some recognition of personal voice and engaging with others" (p. 221). A summary of these findings are presented in the following table:

Table 13. APPRAISAL Choices in the Late Childhood – Early Adolescence Phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221)

ATTITUDE	• Attitudinal expression in adverbs, as well as adjectives; • Attitudinal expression is more evident than in earlier years.
ENGAGEMENT	• A more marked awareness of audience; • Some recognition of personal voice and engaging with others.

3.8.3 - Writing in the Mid-Adolescence Phase.

In the mid-adolescence phase, "attitudinal expression expands" with students making "more regular use of third person, [whilst] first person is retained for some fields and genres" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). Also dependent on field and genre is their use of "modal adverbs and verbs," and the "extensive range of lexis to express ATTITUDE . . . as ATTITUDE has no great role in the genres of science," as was the case in both lower phases of development (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). For historical accounts, a genre typically found in history, mid-adolescence students show "some APPRECIATION in evaluating movements or whole periods of history" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 230). For English, Christie and Derewianka (2008) found that mid-adolescence students use first person when writing personal recounts, and third person for all other genres, and all English genres featured the use of APPRECIATION, AFFECT and JUDGEMENT resources. While the authors noted "a wide range of resources [are used to] build AFFECT, the APPRECIATION of qualities of books or films is less common, as are JUDGEMENTS of qualities" (p. 225). Continuing the pattern established by the younger students, in history and English genres there is "a greater ENGAGEMENT with audience and some awareness of differing perspectives" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). These findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 14. APPRAISAL Choices in the Mid-Adolescence Phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221)

ATTITUDE	• An extensive range of lexis to express ATTITUDE is available; • ATTITUDE used selectively depending on subject area.
ENGAGEMENT	• A greater engagement with audience; • Some awareness of differing perspectives.

3.8.4 - Writing in the Late Adolescence Phase.

In late adolescence, students express their more developed knowledge "as non-congruent grammar, expressing abstraction, generalization, value judgement and opinion" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 218). These students make a "confident use of first or third person (depending on field and genre)" and a broad range of attitudinal resources (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). Unlike previous phases, students in late adolescence use modality frequently to meet the needs of given fields and genres, however just like the previous phases, writing in "science is attitudinally restrained" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). For historical explanations, the students' "arguments and discussions are written in the third person . . . [with] ATTITUDE used to enable interpretation, showing APPRECIATION of events and movements in history or JUDGEMENT of people's behaviour" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 225). For personal recounts in subject English, the students write in first person, while all other English genres are written in third person (Christie & Derewianka, 2008).

Writing in these genres involves the use of "attitudinally rich language, so that experiential and attitudinal values are often *fused* as in APPRECIATION . . . [while] mental processes of cognition express opinion, often contributing to the appraisal of texts, as do many adverbs" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 225). At this phase of development, the students are sensitive to the needs of audience members to explore multiple perspectives, and their use of heteroglossic resources is more evident than previous phases (Christie & Derewianka, 2008). ENGAGEMENT resources are "deployed to acknowledge diverse perspectives . . . [with] modality drawn on to temper judgements" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 230). Compared to the previous phases, "dialogic engagement with a wider discourse community is evident, especially in the fields of English and history" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). These findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 15. APPRAISAL Choices in the Late Adolescence Phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221)

ATTITUDE	• A broad range of lexis is potentially available to express attitude; • Modality is used judiciously, depending on field.
ENGAGEMENT	• Dialogic engagement with a wider discourse community is evident.

3.8.5 - Implications of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) Research.

A major contribution of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) research was finding that students at each phase of development made distinct language choices that suited the needs of a given genre. For example, the APPRAISAL resources that characterised one genre for one subject area usually differed from those in other genres within the same subject and across subjects. In addition, while Christie and Derewianka (2008) highlighted how the frequency and range of attitudinal expressions developed across the four phases, they did not examine students' use of invoked ATTITUDE to implicitly express feelings and evaluate behaviours and non-human phenomena. Regarding ENGAGEMENT, Christie and Derewianka (2008) stressed that students' knowledge of the need to engage with diverse perspectives increased at each subsequent phase, however they rarely moved beyond the broadest line of distinction on the system network (i.e., monoglossic or heteroglossic utterances) to explore the subsystems or the resources that make them up. Further research is therefore required to show how heteroglossic resources of ENGAGEMENT are used in valued texts at each phase of writing development.

In addition to this work, other researchers (Folkeryd, 2006; Macken-Horarik, 2006a, 2006b; Rothery & Stenglin, 2000) have investigated primary and secondary students' APPRAISAL choices in other genres of writing. For instance, Folkeryd (2006) explored attitudinal resources used by Year 5, 8 and 11 students to evaluate phenomena in narrative texts, finding some relation between the

ATTITUDE resources used and factors such as the students' ages, language backgrounds, and gender. Yet irrespective of these factors, the students used a similar range of ATTITUDE resources in their texts. Similar research into attitudinal resources used by secondary school students when writing narratives (Macken-Horarik, 2006a, 2006b) and responses (Rothery & Stenglin, 2000) has provided additional evidence that the sorts of APPRAISAL choices valued in high achieving students' texts vary according to the genre of writing and field of study. As such, detailed descriptions of valued choices in each genre and field are required for teachers to provide explicit guidance on what it takes to succeed with writing in a given context.

Beyond school, a considerable body of research has investigated the use of APPRAISAL resources for persuasive purposes at the tertiary level (e.g., Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Lee, 2006; Swain, 2007, 2010), in academic writing (Hood, 2004a, 2012), and in media texts (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994; Mugumya, 2013; Thomson & White, 2008). This research has highlighted the sorts of persuasive language choices that are valued in adult communication. To ascertain whether high achieving primary and secondary school students are making similar choices in their own persuasive writing, the following sections unpack this research to reveal the valued choices.

3.8.6 - Persuasive Writing at the Tertiary Level and Beyond.

At the tertiary level, Lee's (2006) research into the ATTITUDE resources used by high and low graded undergraduate students found that they played "a

key role in the construction of a critical voice leading to a successful argument" (p. 55). According to Lee (2006), high graded students encoded "a significantly higher number of ATTITUDE items in their arguments" (p. 54). Regarding the AFFECT subsystem, valued texts featured more evaluations of SECURITY and SATISFACTION, while less valued texts featured a greater reliance on INCLINATION and HAPPINESS (Lee, 2006). Regarding APPRECIATION, it was discovered that valued texts featured more VALUATION and COMPOSITION resources, while less valued texts featured significantly more REACTION resources. This reliance on REACTION is consistent with research by Hood (2004), which is presented in greater detail below. Valued texts were also found to feature a large amount of JUDGEMENT, with the writers showing a preference for "invoked JUDGEMENT in contrast to the overt JUDGEMENT of low graded students" (Lee, 2006, p. 54). This finding was consistent with prior work by Macken-Horarik (2003), which described invoked APPRAISAL as "important to analyse because it is a primary mechanism by which a text insinuates itself into reader attitudes" (p. 299). The valued persuasive texts in Lee's (2006) research communicated hidden and latent moral values through invoked ATTITUDE, while the less valued texts did not show such patterns of meaning. Through the overuse of inscribed JUDGEMENT, APPRECIATION and AFFECT resources, the less valued texts created "a more personal voice, reflecting an ill-construed academic audience" (Lee, 2006, p. 55). As a final point, the valued persuasive texts featured resources of ATTITUDE that were "repeatedly chosen and eventually transformed positively

through complex configurations and transformations between positive and negative values", while the low graded texts "[failed] to show this mechanism and their ATTITUDE [was] mostly constructed negatively" to create clearer prosodic patternings (p. 55). While Lee's (2006) research highlighted ATTITUDE as a key aspect of effective argumentation, work by Swain (2007) suggested there may be more important language choices to make when attempting to persuade others.

Swain (2007), who also compared APPRAISAL choices in high and low graded persuasive texts at the tertiary level, found only slight differences in the range and amount of ATTITUDE resources used by both sets of students. Furthermore, the high and low graded texts featured similar text structures, arguments and conclusions, leading Swain (2007) to question what set these texts apart. After further analysis, considerable differences were found in the students' use of ENGAGEMENT resources (Swain, 2007). It was discovered that more successful students drew on a "wider range of resources from the different subsystems of ENGAGEMENT, and showed a more even balance between expanding and contracting resources," while the less valued texts relied heavily on one contracting resource (DENIAL), and lacked the expansive resources found in the valued essays (such as ATTRIBUTE), which created confusion "as to the source of the contrasting views expressed" (p. 292). Similar studies investigating the persuasive writing of tertiary students have found more successful writers

tend to use a greater range and amount of heteroglossic resources than less successful writers (Coffin, 2003; Cominos, 2009; Swain, 2007, 2010; Wu, 2007).

Other studies (e.g., Hyland, 2007; Lancaster, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2004b) compared ENGAGEMENT use in persuasive texts written by native and non-native English speaking students, finding ENGAGEMENT resources played a crucial role in the persuading of others. More recently, Hao and Humphrey's (2012) work on *burnishing* and *tarnishing* focused on how tertiary students enhance the persuasiveness of essays by strategically situating arguments alongside sources brought in from other texts. External sources can be evaluated positively (through burnishing) or negatively (through tarnishing), while internal sources are only burnished to present the author's arguments as valid (Hao & Humphrey, 2012). Regarding primary and secondary school writers, burnishing and tarnishing would only likely impact their texts if they drew external voices into their arguments.

In her research into tertiary level texts, Swain (2010) suggested that writing different persuasive genres might have implications for the ENGAGEMENT resources used by a writer. While her research did not investigate this specifically, she suggested a number of possible relations between the persuasive genres and ENGAGEMENT, for instance, a discussion would likely feature a different and broader range of ENGAGEMENT options than an exposition. "In referencing, comparing and contrasting different viewpoints, for instance, [a discussion] may feasibly draw more extensively on the ATTRIBUTE

and COUNTER subsystems than a one-sided argument" (Swain, 2010, p. 296). Alternatively, it was thought that the one-sided expositions may make greater use of monoglossic utterances (Swain, 2010). Lastly, "a hortatory argument which seeks to persuade the reader to do something, may select different ENGAGEMENT options than an analytical argument, which seeks to persuade the reader that something is or is not the case" (Swain, 2010, p. 296). Although the validity of these claims was not verified through analysis and interpretation, Swain (2010) expressed that such work would make "a very interesting project" (p. 296).

As a final example, Coffin and Hewings (2004) investigated how tertiary level non-native speaking students constructed persuasive texts as part of the IELTS test, which provided them with 40 minutes of writing time and "no access to sources or references to serve as evidence for their argument" (p. 154). In this context, "the writer's voice and subjective opinions, rather than being in the background, were, in fact, made rhetorically prominent" via authorial intrusions (Coffin & Hewings, 2004, p. 154). This finding highlights how persuasive language choices that are not necessarily valued in one context – such as the expression of personal opinion via authorial intrusion – can be valued in others – such as a highly rigid and formal testing program. Further research has sought to understand valued persuasive choices in contexts beyond tertiary education, and these are explored below.

3.8.6.1 - APPRAISAL in academic writing.

Academics are expected to combine aspects of core genres first taught at school to form more complex varieties of texts. For instance, Hood's (2012) examination of research articles and research article introductions found that both text types "constitute macro-genres or complexes of genres . . . [featuring] sequences of evaluative report and description genres" (p. 57). According to Hood (2012), such texts feature:

> . . . reports on the object of study, reports on categories of scholarship relevant to the object of study, descriptions of specific studies, and descriptions of features of the writer's own study as a transition to a more detailed account of research design. (p. 57)

In addition, Hood (2004) investigated how APPRAISAL choices vary as writers shift between these genres, finding that a substantial amount of inscribed ATTITUDE is expressed when writers report on the object of study within research article introductions, with the strength and amount of these resources intended to compel reader alignment. This use of inscribed ATTITUDE by academic writers often served to establish prosodies of intensification to compel readers to align with the value position being advanced, while the writers inscribed ATTITUDE minimally when appraising other research, allowing them "to meet the dual expectations of . . . being both persuasive and objective" (Hood, 2004b, p. 227). While such prosodic patternings highlight the sorts of evaluative language choices that are deemed highly effective in such contexts,

little research has sought to reveal whether similar prosodies of positive or negative attitudinal meanings are established in the work of high achieving primary and secondary school students as they attempt to persuade readers.

3.8.6.2 - Inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE in news texts.

As researchers are yet to investigate primary and secondary school students' use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE to persuade others, the present study draws on SFL research into the use of these resources in news texts (Richardson, 2007; Van & Thomson, 2008; White, 2006). One type of news text, known as hard news, relates to reports and editorials associated with unusual damages that occur and power struggles between people, for example reports about conflicts, accidents or crimes (Bell, 2009; Mugumya, 2013; White, 1997). While not always the case, hard news texts often follow the generic structures of media texts (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994), with the aim of persuading audiences in three ways (outlined in Section 3.6). When creating hard news texts, the use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE plays a crucial role in positioning audiences to evaluate issues from particular points of view. The use of inscribed ATTITUDE is usually "limited to attributed sources" (Mugumya, 2013, p. 61), which allows the presenter or writer to appear more objective in their reporting (White, 2006). In an analysis of hard news texts, Thomson and White (2008) found they rarely featured inscribed authorial JUDGEMENT or AFFECT, although there was evidence of inscribed APPRECIATION to explicitly present non-human phenomena in positive or negative ways. In such texts,

invocation was vital in implicitly flagging positive or negative JUDGEMENT of people's behaviours via association and implication (Thomson & White, 2008). Thomson and White (2008) stated:

> There is a very high probability that any explicit (inscribed) positive or negative JUDGEMENTS . . . will be confined to material attributed to outside sources. Thus there will be no or very few instances of the journalistic author explicitly, in his/her own words, passing JUDGMENT on human actions and behaviours. (p. 222)

Rather than using explicit attitudinal lexis, hard news journalists have been found to commonly exploit ideational wordings or metaphors that invoke attitudinal meanings, particularly for the JUDGEMENT of behaviour, under the guise of objective reporting (Holmgreen & Vestergaard, 2009; Richardson, 2007; Thomson and Fukui, 2008). In the predominantly adult discourse of hard news texts, these implicit language choices are valued highly. Further research is needed to discover whether the invoked ATTITUDE plays a similar role in valued persuasive texts written by primary and secondary school students, as this was not a feature of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) seminal work in this area.

To summarise, the literature surrounding APPRAISAL use in high and low graded texts emphasises the key role of ENGAGEMENT resources in effective persuasive writing at the tertiary level. Further research is needed into the ENGAGEMENT choices of primary and secondary school students, to reveal if a similar pattern exists.

3.9 - Chapter Summary

This chapter has broadly introduced the tradition of SFL, a multifunctional, multistratal theory of language that provides researchers with system networks to explore and understand patterns of meaning in language use. At the level of genre, three school-based persuasive genres were outlined as the most commonly encountered in school settings. Students can follow the staging of the persuasive genres to accomplish a range of social purposes. At the level of discourse, the APPRAISAL systems of ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT were highlighted as particularly relevant to persuasive writing, as they involve the evaluation of a range of phenomena, and the positioning of readers to do likewise.

As little research has focused on young people's use of school-based persuasive genres or APPRAISAL resources for persuasive purposes, the chapter drew on research into the use of these concepts in other contexts, such as higher education and the media. Key findings from the SFL literature are listed as follows, highlighting the sorts of persuasive genre and language choices expected in the high scoring persuasive texts analysed in this study. In a range of areas there has been insufficient research to suggest specifically what primary and secondary school students are capable of, however in these instances suggestions have been drawn from other contexts.

3.9.1 - School-Based Persuasive Genres.

- Humphrey (1996) described more advanced expositions as those that tend to separate arguments for a thesis into paragraphs, and those that summarise arguments and the thesis in a conclusion, with students becoming more proficient at this over time. This study will therefore seek to determine whether the persuasive texts written by Year 7 and Year 9 students follow the school-based persuasive genre staging more closely than those written by Year 3 and Year 5 students. It will also assess whether high scoring students at each year level support their final claims or calls for action with summaries of arguments, simply restate their thesis, or suggest a solution without a summary.
- Discussions are first introduced in the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a) in Year 5, with each subsequent year placing greater emphasis on the development of this persuasive genre. This study will therefore seek to determine whether Year 7 and Year 9 students follow the generic structure of discussions more commonly than those in Year 3 and Year 5.
- Coffin (2004) suggested examiners are often predisposed to persuasive texts that conform to clear structures, and as the NAPLAN markers assess text structure directly, it is expected that the high scoring texts will follow one of the three school-based persuasive genre structures

closely, as they would likely not have been assessed as highly otherwise.

3.9.2 - The Use of Attitudinal Resources.

- As the use of inscribed AFFECT was deemed by Martin (1985) as appropriate in hortatory exposition, yet inappropriate in analytical exposition, the study will examine whether the use of this resource by students varies according to the generic structure they follow. Similarly, it will explore whether students who write analytical expositions do so from a third person perspective (Martin, 1989), despite the acknowledgement that this may be undermined by the subjective nature of the NAPLAN context.
- Lee (2006) found that valued persuasive texts at the tertiary level featured complex configurations of positive and negative ATTITUDE values, while less valued texts were prosodically realised with mostly negative ATTITUDE values. As students appear to develop these complex configurations at the end of their schooling or beginning of tertiary studies, the study will seek to determine how high scoring students realise prosodies of positive or negative evaluations, depending on the position they argue.
- Researchers found that invoking attitudinal meanings implicitly plays a key role in positioning readers and viewers of hard news texts to judge behaviours positively or negatively (Mugumya, 2013; Thomson

& White, 2008; White, 2006). While this is also a feature of academic texts (Hood, 2006, 2010, 2012), it has not been the feature of any study into the persuasive writing of primary and secondary school students, and as such is another focus of the present study.

3.9.3 - The Use of ENGAGEMENT Resources.

- Christie and Derewianka (2008) stated that students' reliance on monoglossic utterances decreases as their writing develops. The study will therefore unpack whether the amount of monoglossic utterances are higher in earlier year levels and lower in later year levels, and whether the use of heteroglossic resources mirrors this progression in reverse.
- Considering Humphrey's (1996) statements about sourcing, the study will also explore whether texts written to follow the generic structure of a discussion feature more heteroglossic resources that draw other voices into a text (such as ATTRIBUTE, ACKNOWLEDGE, and ENDORSE). It will also consider whether such students rely less heavily on monoglossic utterances than those who write expositions.
- Swain's (2010) predictions about ENGAGEMENT resources that characterise hortatory and analytical expositions and discussions are yet to be tested, however they suggest that students who write discussions may draw more on resources of ATTRIBUTE and COUNTER, while those who write expositions may draw more on monoglossic

utterances. The study will therefore seek to determine whether ENGAGEMENT resources vary depending on whether arguments are hortatory or analytical.

- Swain's (2007) research found that ENGAGEMENT resources played a key role in distinguishing high and low graded persuasive texts at the tertiary level. Students who succeeded drew on a wider range of resources from the different subsystems of ENGAGEMENT and showed a more even balance between expansion and contraction. The present study will therefore examine whether similar patterns are evident in the work of high achieving primary and secondary school students.

This chapter has highlighted a considerable gap in our understandings of young people's persuasive genre and language choices across the years of primary and secondary school. As a result, a majority of the key points listed above were based on the findings of research conducted in tertiary education contexts or fields entirely separate from education. Chapter 5 of this study explains how it will modestly address aspects of this gap by examining persuasive texts written for the high-stakes NAPLAN test by Australian primary and secondary school students. Together with the results of the study, the key points listed above will be revisited in Chapter 8. Overall, this chapter has highlighted the need for further research to confirm whether Australian educational stakeholders are valuing the same kinds of persuasive genre and language choices in young people's writing, and if so, how these choices change

across the years of primary and secondary school. The following chapter integrates the study's two theoretical perspectives by suggesting a range of links between them.

4 - Theoretical Foundations: Links between Two Linguistic Traditions

4.0 - Introduction

This study seeks to answer two core research questions regarding the persuasive genre and language choices made by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students in one context. To do so, two theories of language were introduced in Chapters 2 and 3 (i.e., classical rhetoric and SFL) for providing classical and modern perspectives on the production and instruction of persuasive texts that are particularly relevant in contemporary Australian educational settings. This chapter contrasts principles and systems of each tradition, highlighting a range of conceptual and system/principle-specific links that have the potential to extend and complement both theories. The chapter has two main sections. In Section 4.1, conceptual links between classical rhetoric and SFL are outlined at a broad level, while in Section 4.2 five system/principle-specific links are outlined as follows:

1. links between the forms of persuasive discourse and ATTITUDE (Section 4.2.1);
2. links between tropes and APPRAISAL resources (Section 4.2.2);
3. links between schemes and APPRAISAL resources (Section 4.2.3);
4. links between figures of speech and thematic progression (Section 4.2.4);
5. links between figures of speech and mode (Section 4.2.5).

The links outlined in this chapter will further inform the analyses of context (Chapter 6) and the selected texts (Chapter 7).

4.1 - Links between Classical Rhetoric and SFL

The traditions of classical rhetoric and SFL are linked in their descriptions of the function of language. In defining grammar, Matthiessen and Halliday (1997) wrote of two Western conceptualisations of language originating in Ancient Greece. The first perspective – logic and philosophy – views grammar as a set of rules that specify grammatical structures, which are studied in isolation as the basic units of language. By contrast, the perspective of rhetoric and ethnography views language as a resource for meaning making, with grammar used to create meaning by the method of wording. In this case, the basic unit of language is text (discourse), "organised according to rhetorical context [and] studied in its discourse environment . . . SFL takes the resource perspective rather than the rule perspective; and is designed to display the overall system of grammar rather than only fragments" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997, para. 5). As such both SFL and classical rhetoric can be classed as functional grammars, in sharing a similar view of language as a resource for meaning making.

Classical rhetoric and SFL were conceptualised to meet the communicative demands of their respective times. Classical rhetoric was a product of 5th century Ancient Greece, rising in response to the language challenges of the first democratic society (Nelson & Kinneavy, 2003). SFL was

conceptualised in the 20th century to meet the language challenges of the information age, where "the kinds of grammatics usually presented in school is a diluted version of the 'grammar as rule' type of theory … [which] as a theory, falls far short of the demands that are now being made on grammatical theories" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997, para. 4). As such, both theories area linked in their reasons for being. SFL emphasises the social function of language, with this representing one of its core tenets (Halliday & Hasan, 1985), yet similar arguments have been made of classical rhetoric. For instance, Nelson (2011) stated, "although different conceptions of rhetoric have different emphases, in a general sense the focus of rhetoric is on the uses of language in social contexts" (p. 1). These statements suggest broad conceptual ties between classical rhetoric and SFL, yet there also exists a range of additional links associated with the specific systems and principles explored in this study.

Table 16. Summary of Conceptual Links between Classical Rhetoric and SFL

- Both can be classed as functional grammars
- Both were conceptualised to meet communicative needs
- Both emphasise the social function of language

4.2 - Links between the Forms of Persuasive Discourse and ATTITUDE

The first system/principle-specific link is between the forms of persuasive discourse from classical rhetoric and the attitude system of appraisal from SFL. As explained in Chapter 2, the three forms of persuasive discourse are associated with different time periods and are further differentiated by the

purposes they serve. The purpose of epideictic discourse is to persuade others that a person is honourable or dishonourable, which speakers and writers can achieve by basing their arguments on the special topics of virtues and vices (i.e., a person's qualities) and/or assets and achievements (i.e., what a person has or has done). An example of epideictic discourse can be seen in the following excerpt from a note sent to Apple employees by CEO Tim Cook to commemorate the second anniversary of Steve Jobs' death:

> Tomorrow marks the second anniversary of Steve's death. I hope everyone will reflect on what he meant to all of us and to the world. Steve was an amazing human being and left the world a better place. I think of him often and find enormous strength in memories of his friendship, vision and leadership. (Guglielmo, 2013, para. 7)

The purpose of this text was to honour Jobs' legacy and to encourage Apple employees at a potentially troubling time. It emphasises Jobs' virtues (e.g., amazing; friendship; vision; leadership), yet also his achievements (e.g., left the world a better place), and so integrates both special topics of epideictic discourse for considerable rhetorical force. Yet this text is also rich in its use attitudinal resources of appraisal. Jobs is judged as an amazing human being (positive social esteem) who left the world a better place (positive social sanction). In fact, any persuasive text based on or featuring the special topics of epideictic discourse will inherently involve the use of attitudinal resources of judgement, as these resources allow for the praise or criticism of individuals or

groups regarding their nature, physical or material assets, and actions. While epideictic discourse can feature any number of appraisal resources from the three systems, it is reliant on the judgement subsystem of attitude to achieve its social purpose.

Further links are evident between the special topics of deliberative discourse and the subsystems of attitude. For instance, any argument based on the deliberative topic of the worthy or unworthy (i.e., what is morally the right or wrong thing to do) inherently relies on attitudinal resources from the social sanction category of judgement. Examples of this can be seen in the following excerpts from Australian Treasurer Joe Hockey's 2014 Budget Speech:

> We know that for some in the community this Budget will not be easy. But this Budget is not about self-interest. This Budget is about the national interest. (para. 22)

> I say to the Australian people, to build a workforce for the future, those who can work, should work. The benefits of work go far beyond your weekly pay packet. Work gives people a sense of self, and work helps to build a sense of community. That is why young people should move into employment before they embark on a life on welfare. (para. 72)

> . . . unless we fix the Budget together, we will leave the next generation a legacy of debt, not opportunity. As Australians, we must not leave our children worse off. That's not fair. That is not our way. (para. 159)

Hockey's (2014) argument centred on the theme that it was ethically right for the government to decrease spending in areas like social security payments, even if this was personally disadvantageous to many Australians. Hockey continuously juxtaposed the special topics of deliberative discourse in this way (i.e., the worthy vs. the advantageous), to justify the proposed changes. Yet to do so he relied on the resources of propriety and veracity from the social sanction category of judgement, as he explicitly or implicitly labelled particular actions as moral, ethical, immoral or unethical. The same link is evident in any persuasive text that feature arguments based on the special topic of the worthy or unworthy. Conversely, the special topic of the advantageous or disadvantageous would more likely rely on attitudinal resources of appreciation, as future actions are described as being interesting/disinteresting and worthwhile/worthless to people.

Table 17. Summary of Links between Forms of Persuasive Discourse & ATTITUDE

- Arguments based on the special topics of epideictic discourse (virtues and vices; personal assets and accomplishments) typically rely on resources of JUDGEMENT from the ATTITUDE system
- Arguments based on the deliberative special topic of the worthy or unworthy typically rely on resources of social sanction from the JUDGEMENT category of the ATTITUDE system
- Arguments based on the deliberative special topic of the advantageous or disadvantageous rely on resources of APPRECIATION from the ATTITUDE system

4.3 - Links between Tropes and APPRAISAL Resources

The second system/principle-specific link is between the figurative tropes of classical rhetoric and appraisal resources of SFL. As stated in Chapter 2, tropes are figures of speech that entail a deviation of the ordinary meanings of words and phrases, as in metaphor when one thing is spoken of in terms of another. Metaphor is as an important rhetorical tool that was first recognised for its ability to render abstract notions vividly clear (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004), yet this trope can also be used to realise a range of resources from the appraisal systems of SFL. For instance, it can be used to provoke the evaluation of phenomena in the absence of explicit attitudinal lexis, as in the following excerpt of a song by Indigenous singer Archie Roach for the Stolen Generations (Martin & White, 2005):

> This story's right, this story's true
>
> I would not tell lies to you
>
> Like the promises they did not keep
>
> And how they <u>fenced us in like sheep</u> (p. 64)

In this example, there is explicit attitudinal lexis, yet the final line provokes the judgement (negative social sanction) of white authorities for their inhuman treatment of Indigenous Australians as animals. This form of invocation is regarded as highly effective in building solidarity with readers by aligning them with the values advanced by the authorial voice. In addition, while the system of GRADUATION is not part of this study's analytical framework,

Martin and White (2005) outlined how metaphor can also be used within the FORCE: INTENSIFICATION branch to intensify processes (e.g., it came out like a jack in the box; wander about like Brown's cows), as well as FORCE: QUANTIFICATION to intensify quantities or attributes (e.g., a mountain of a man; a trickle of enquiries).

Beyond metaphor, rhetorical questions are another form of trope that can be used to realise resources of appraisal, in this case from the engagement subsystem. Firstly, the contractive engagement resource of concur: affirm is generally realised by the use of locutions such as of course, or certainly (as in the statement: of course children should learn to write persuasively), which construes an audience for the text that shares the writer's point of view. However, rhetorical questions also achieve the same effect by implying such locutions as the obvious response that readers will have (Martin & White, 2005). Martin and White (2005) also argued that other rhetorical or expository questions which do not imply such obvious responses can also be used to realise expansive values of entertain (as in the statement: Is this the best approach to solve the issue?), however such expository questions would not be defined by scholars and theorists of classical rhetoric as rhetorical questions in a technical sense.

Table 18. Summary of Links between Tropes and APPRAISAL Resources

- Metaphor (trope) can be used to provoke evaluation in the absence of explicit attitudinal lexis (ATTITUDE)
- Metaphor (trope) can be used to intensify processes (FORCE: INTENSIFICATION) and quantities or attributes (FORCE: QUANTIFICATION) (GRADUATION)
- Rhetorical questions (trope) can be used to contract dialogic space in the same way as CONCUR: AFFIRM (ENGAGEMENT)

4.4 - Links between Schemes and APPRAISAL Resources

The third system/principle-specific link is between the figurative schemes of classical rhetoric and appraisal resources of SFL. Schemes involve "a deviation from the ordinary pattern or arrangement of words" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 379). While not specifically investigated in this study, Martin and White (2005) suggested certain repetitions can realise the FORCE: INTENSIFICATION category of GRADUATION, including the repetition of the same lexical item (e.g., today the weather is hot hot hot!), or the "assembling of lists of terms which are closely related semantically" (p. 144) (e.g., it was the most immature, irresponsible, disgraceful and misleading address ever given). From the perspective of classical rhetoric, the first of these suggestions constitutes the use of epizeuxis, a scheme involving the repetition of a word for emphasis (Harris, 2003). The second constitutes the use of amplification, which involves restating a term in different ways to provide more detail (Harris, 2013). Almost all schemes involve the repetition of particular aspects of clauses for a variety of purposes, and as such link closely to the FORCE: INTENSIFICATION category of

GRADUATION. The repetitive nature of schemes also relates to another SFL concept known as thematic progression, as discussed in the following section.

Table 19. Summary of Links between Schemes and APPRAISAL Resources

• Schemes that involve repetition (e.g., epizeuxis and amplification) can be used to realise FORCE: INTENSIFICATION (GRADUATION) through emphasis

4.5 - Links between Figures of Speech and Thematic Progression

The fourth system/principle-specific link is between figures of speech from classical rhetoric and the notion of thematic progression from SFL. Anaphora, epistrophe, anadiplosis and epanalepsis are all figures of speech (schemes) that involve repetition. Specifically, anaphora involves the repetition of words at the beginning of successive clauses (e.g., We shall teach them in the classrooms, we shall teach them in the playgrounds, etc.), epistrophe involves the repetition of words at the ends of successful clauses (e.g., In writing, nothing compels like persuasion, nothing inspires like persuasion, etc.), anadiplosis involves the repetition of the last word of one clause at the beginning of the next (e.g., Confidence leads to effective teaching, effective teaching leads to positive outcomes, positive outcomes relax principals, etc.) and epanalepsis involves the repetition of a word at the beginning and end of a given clause or sentence (e.g., Teach well and they may well teach) (Corbett & Connors, 1999). These figures all relate to the structure of clauses.

From the perspective of SFL, the structure and cohesion of texts is handled by the textual metafunction, which features the choices of theme and

rheme (Halliday, 1994). Theme is "the point of departure; it is that with which the clause is concerned" (Halliday, 1994, p. 37), while rheme makes up "the remainder of the message" (Halliday, 1994, p. 67). The move from theme to rheme in and across clauses is termed thematic progression (Eggins, 1994). Drawing from initial work by Danes (1974), Eggins (1994) discussed three forms of thematic progression including simple linear progression, where the rheme of one clause becomes the theme of the next; the constant continuous theme, where the theme of one clause becomes the theme of following clauses; and theme progression with derived themes, where the first theme acts as a hypertheme, with each subsequent theme relating to it in some way (Eggins, 1994). In this way a simple linear progression in SFL constitutes the use of anadiplosis in classical rhetoric, while a constant continuous theme constitutes the use of anaphora, emphasising further links between both theoretical perspectives.

Table 20. Summary of Links between Figures of Speech & Thematic Progression

• Anadiplosis (scheme) can be used to realise a simple linear thematic progression • Anaphora (scheme) can be used to realise a constant continuous thematic progression

4.6 – Links between Figures of Speech and Mode

The fifth system/principle-specific link is between the figures of speech from classical rhetoric and the register variable of mode from SFL. In their discussion of mode, Martin and Rose (2003) stated that "written discourse can

imitate dialogue, for rhetorical effect, as when [an individual] asks a question, then answers it himself; or when [another individual] replaces a mistaken proposition with its contradiction" (p. 247). Martin and Rose (2003) listed two examples to highlight these points, and the first is presented as follows:

> *Example 1: Asking a question, then answering it (p. 247)*
> So is amnesty being given at the cost of justice being done? This is not a frivolous question, but a very special issue, one which challenges the integrity of the entire Truth and Reconciliation process.

This example highlights how written discourse can imitate dialogue for rhetorical effect, yet from the perspective of classical rhetoric both examples have been identified as particular figures of speech. The first – a scheme known as hypophora – involves "asking one or more questions and then proceeding to answer them" (Harris, 2003, p. 33), usually at the beginning of a paragraph or line of argument. Harris (2003) described hypophora as a transitional device, "allowing the writer to change directions or enter a new area of discussion" (p. 33). This suggests a clear link to the register variable of mode, which is aligned to the textual metafunction of language. Martin and Rose's (2003) second example is as follows:

> *Example 2: Stating and replacing a mistaken proposition (p. 247)*
> Some say that has now been achieved. But I know this is not the case.

This example features another scheme known as procatalepsis, which "anticipates an objection that might be raised by a reader and responds to it, thus permitting an argument to continue moving forward while taking into account opposing points" (Harris, 2003, p. 30). Again Harris (2003) described procatalepsis as a transitional device, yet also echoed the words of Martin and Rose (2003) when he stated that, "skilfully used, this device can create almost a conversational effect to an argument, where opposing comments are introduced and responded to in a back-and-forth dialogue" (p. 31). Scholars and theorists of classical rhetoric have outlined how the effect of procatalepsis can vary depending on the type of objection initially raised and the author's response to it (e.g., the author can invent the objection to serve their point, they can concede the objection before turning it into a point of favour, or present the objection as coming from an individual who does not understand the issue at stake). The point remains that there is strong crossover between the mode variable of register and rhetorical devices that are transitional in nature.

Table 21. Summary of Links between Figures of Speech and Mode

• Hypophora (scheme) and procatalepsis (scheme) can both be used to imitate dialogue for rhetorical effect, linking to descriptions of mode by Martin and Rose (2003)

4.7 - Chapter Summary

This chapter has highlighted a range of conceptual and system/principle-specific links between the theoretical perspectives of classical rhetoric and SFL.

It has modestly listed these points of connection to emphasise the complementarity of these theories, and hopes to begin a more comprehensive discussion about how aspects of each might be scrutinised and perhaps extended by related concepts from the other. It has also flagged a number of connections between classical rhetorical concepts and other systems within and beyond the interpersonal metafunction of SFL, such as between specific figures of speech, GRADUATION and theme. All conceptual and system/principal-specific links are summarised in the table below. This chapter concludes the theoretical foundations of the present study. The following chapter explains how the study has been designed to most effectively answer the research questions introduced in Chapter 1.

Table 22. Summary of Links between Classical Rhetoric and SFL

Conceptual links between classical rhetoric and SFL	• Both can be classed as functional grammars • Both were conceptualised to meet communicative needs • Both emphasis the social function of language
Links between the forms of persuasive discourse and ATTITUDE	• Arguments based on the special topics of epideictic discourse (virtues and vices; personal assets and accomplishments) typically rely on resources of JUDGEMENT from the ATTITUDE system • Arguments based on the deliberative special topic of the worthy or unworthy typically rely on resources of social sanction from the JUDGEMENT category of the ATTITUDE system • Arguments based on the deliberative special topic of the advantageous or disadvantageous typically rely on resources of APPRECIATION from the ATTITUDE system
Links between tropes and APPRAISAL	• Metaphor (trope) can be used to provoke evaluation in the absence of explicit attitudinal lexis (ATTITUDE) • Metaphor (trope) can be used to intensify processes (FORCE: INTENSIFICATION) and quantities or attributes (FORCE: QUANTIFICATION) (GRADUATION) • Rhetorical questions (trope) can be used to contract dialogic space in the same way as CONCUR: AFFIRM (ENGAGEMENT)
Links between schemes and APPRAISAL	• Schemes that involve repetition (e.g., epizeuxis and amplification) can be used to realise FORCE: INTENSIFICATION (GRADUATION) through emphasis
Links between figures of speech and thematic progression	• Anadiplosis (scheme) can be used to realise a simple linear thematic progression • Anaphora (scheme) can be used to realise a constant continuous thematic progression
Links between figures of speech and mode	• Hypophora (scheme) and procatalepsis (scheme) can both be used to imitate dialogue for rhetorical effect, linking to descriptions of mode by Martin and Rose (2003)

5 - Methodology

5.0 - Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological framework used to analyse persuasive language choices made by high achieving students for the 2011 NAPLAN writing test. It does so in four main sections: first, it presents a set of research questions to address gaps in the literature highlighted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4; second, it outlines the method of sampling used to collect texts that feature highly valued persuasive genre and language choices across year levels; third, it proposes an analytical framework that blends principles from two linguistic traditions; and fourth, it justifies the research design by addressing issues of consistency and ethical concerns surrounding the study.

5.1 - Research Questions

The following research questions are posed to investigate persuasive language choices made by Tasmanian Year 3, 5, 7 and 9 students:

1. How did the 2011 NAPLAN context position young people to make particular choices in their writing?
    a. How were students positioned to make persuasive genre choices?
    b. How were students positioned to make language choices at the level of discourse?
2. What choices were valued in the highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test?

d. What persuasive genre choices were valued?

e. What language choices were valued at the level of discourse?

f. What are the practical and theoretical implications of these findings?

This chapter highlights how the study's methodological design provides authentic and reliable answers to these research questions. The first stage in this process was the selection and collection of data.

5.2 - Sampling Method

According to Marshall (1996), samples for qualitative research projects can be selected using one of three broad approaches: *convenience sampling*, which generally involves "the selection of the most accessible subjects" (p. 523); *purposeful sampling*, in which "the researcher actively selects the most productive sample to answer the research question [by] developing a framework of variables that might influence an individual's contribution" (p. 523); and *theoretical sampling*, which "necessitates building interpretative theories from the emerging data and selecting a new sample to examine and elaborate on this theory" (p. 523). To address the present study's research questions, a purposeful sampling approach was selected, as it provides the most productive sample of highly valued persuasive texts written by primary and secondary school students.

The annual NAPLAN test aims to efficiently collect work samples written by all Australian students across four year levels of primary and secondary

school, ranking their work according to how effectively it meets a set of marking criteria (ACARA, 2013). As such, it provides an ideal opportunity for researchers to analyse students' work that has been deemed by independent, trained markers to represent the highest levels of achievement at a given time. This data could be used to compare language choices that characterise such levels of achievement across year groups, and to theorise about the development of language skills, yet despite these nascent possibilities, the only NAPLAN test data publically available are the quantitative statistics published online. This is the first known study to be granted access to raw NAPLAN texts as written by students, and gaining this access was a complex process.

In every Australian state and territory is a Test Administration Authority that is "responsible for the implementation and administration of the NAPLAN tests in their jurisdiction" (ACARA, 2011e, para. 1). The Tasmanian Test Administration Authority is the Department of Education (hereafter DoE), who as caretakers of completed NAPLAN tests, were contacted for the purposes of the present study.

5.2.1 - Limitations on Data Usage for Publication.

Upon receiving the application for research, the DoE approved this study on condition that it adhered to a number of guidelines, put in place to protect the anonymity of the students involved. For example, all high scoring texts were provided de-identified by the DoE, no raw data could be included in the thesis, the use of the texts to compare Tasmanian students to those in other

jurisdictions was not authorised, nor was the use of the texts to draw conclusions about the achievement of Tasmanian students against the expectations of the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a), and the publication of extended extracts of the texts (in excess of 10%) was not authorised[6]. As the full texts were not authorised for publication, only short extracts of language choices made by the high scoring students could be included in the study at any given time.

The DoE provided the 15 highest scoring persuasive texts written by Year 3, 5, 7 and 9 students for the 2011 NAPLAN test, equalling 60 texts in total. From this sample, one Year 5 text was selected for the purpose of a pilot study as outlined below. As "credible research [needs] to be designed with practicalities firmly in mind" (O'Leary, 2008, p. 165), the data sample was reduced from the initial 60 texts to two texts per year level (eight high scoring texts in total), following the pilot study.

To enhance consistency, any texts that argued solely *for* the NAPLAN prompt were set aside, leaving those that solely argued *against* it (expositions), or that argued for both sides (discussions). From this shortlist, the purposeful sampling continued with a final selection of texts that indicated the most effective language choices in terms of genre, evaluative language and figurative

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[6] The complete list of DoE guidelines is included in Appendix 1.

language. As all texts written for the 2011 NAPLAN test responded to the same prompt, under the same test conditions, at approximately the same time, and were assessed using the same criteria, the texts were deemed more comparable across year levels than any other accessible set of persuasive texts completed and assessed under other circumstances. Despite this, the selected data set features a number of limitations that must be outlined.

5.2.2 - Limitations of the NAPLAN Data.

While all markers of the 2011 NAPLAN test were trained in the same way to assess students' texts against common marking criteria, their individual standards may have differed, and therefore it is possible that texts may not have been judged in precisely the same way by all markers. In addition, some of the marking criteria relate to general aspects of English, such as vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, rather than more uniquely persuasive language choices. For instance, it is possible that a high scoring student may have scored highly on these more general writing criteria, yet scored lower on the criteria most strongly related to persuasive writing, such as orienting the audience or using persuasive devices. Although the texts were all marked in the same way, having any number of different markers and a wide range of criteria would likely impact on the validity and reliability of the initial ranking of these responses as the highest scoring persuasive texts, and therefore the texts that could be selected for this study. Due to this, it is important to clarify that these texts are simply those highlighted through the NAPLAN marking process as featuring

valued persuasive genre and language choices, based on a set of 10 marking criteria. It is hoped that any variation in markers' standards would be limited by the training and evaluation procedures. The NAPLAN tests have a recognised level of integrity, and as such are used by a variety of government and educational authorities for a range of purposes. While it is possible there could be more effective persuasive texts written by Tasmanian students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9, due to the rigorous NAPLAN testing programme, the eight selected texts are still upheld as featuring highly valued persuasive genre and language choices across the year levels.

With the use of NAPLAN test data justified, the chapter now outlines the methods of analysis used to investigate how students were positioned by the test to make particular persuasive language choices, and the language choices they actually made.

5.3 - Process of Analysis

To address the research questions, this study aims to show persuasive genre and language choices made by high scoring students. Yet as the meanings that make up any text are directly influenced by the surrounding context (Martin & Rose, 2003), the contextual features of the 2011 NAPLAN test also require examination. The first stage of this involves showing specifically how the 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking criteria and testing procedures positioned students to construct their texts.

The NAPLAN writing test features a prompt that states a point of view on an issue. Students are required to respond to this prompt by arguing for or against the stated point of view. Each year, the NAPLAN prompt includes a short paragraph outlining one or more reasons for both sides of the issue, before a statement is made that students are to agree or disagree with, for instance: "too much money is spent on toys and games". Following this, the prompt generally features an example structure that students can follow, and a list of suggestions, such as: "remember to plan your writing", and "write in sentences". Beyond the prompt, the NAPLAN testing procedures require students to write their persuasive texts in 40 minutes. They are not informed about the topic of their texts before the test, and they are prohibited from discussing the prompt or accessing sources of information once the test begins. In addition to the testing procedures, the NAPLAN marking criteria are freely available online in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) and used by many Australian primary and secondary school teachers to prepare students for the test each year (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012). In this way, the marking criteria are not only used to assess the texts after they are written, but their use in the classroom also commonly positions students to make particular language choices.

These three contextual features of the 2011 NAPLAN writing test can be examined to highlight how students' language choices were influenced by the context surrounding them. As introduced in Chapter 3, "the main construct

used by functional linguists to model context is known as register . . . [and a] register analysis is organized by metafunctions into field, tenor and mode" (Martin & Rose, p. 242). For the present study, the most influential of these register variables is tenor, as it concerns the relationships established between writers and readers (Martin & Rose, 2003). As such, the tenor relationships at stake in this context of NAPLAN testing are the focus of the following chapter.

5.3.1 - Analytical Framework.

After exploring how they were positioned to respond to the prompt, the eight high scoring texts could then be analysed. As stated previously, one high scoring Year 5 text was selected for a pilot study to test and modify the proposed method as required. This text was analysed using the following seven analytical lenses at the levels of genre and discourse.

From classical rhetoric:

- the three forms of persuasive discourse;
- rhetorical appeals to ethos, logos and pathos;
- figures of speech.

From SFL:

- the school-based persuasive genres;
- the ATTITUDE system of APPRAISAL;
- the ENGAGEMENT system of APPRAISAL;
- the GRADUATION system of APPRAISAL.

The pilot study highlighted how certain analytical lenses provided richer descriptions of the Year 5 student's persuasive genre and language choices, as well as the extent of analysis required to identify them. From this initial set of seven, five lenses were selected to make up the final analytical framework for the study. This framework was created by integrating principles of two linguistic traditions, with two lenses drawn from classical rhetoric, and three drawn from SFL. The framework is intended to provide researchers with a toolkit for unpacking persuasive genre and language choices in other contexts. It is shown in the table below, and outlined in detail in the following sections.

Table 23. Analytical Framework

Level	Classical rhetoric	SFL
Genre	Forms of persuasive discourse	School-based persuasive genres
Discourse	Figurative language	• ATTITUDE • ENGAGEMENT

5.3.1.1 - First analytical lens: Forms of persuasive discourse.

Working within the guidelines of the DoE, the texts were analysed in year levels with little reference given to individual texts. For the first analytical lens, each text's clauses, sentences and paragraphs were categorised under judicial, epideictic or deliberative discourse, depending on whether the content related to matters of the past, present or future. This typically led to the

identification of special topics that had been used by the students to argue against the prompt or for both sides. In a limited number of cases it was easier to identify the use of special topics initially, and then the subsequent form of persuasive discourse.

The coding process for this analytical lens involved four stages. First the form of discourse was identified and recorded, followed by the relevant special topic, the instantiation from the text, and finally the phenomena affected if applicable. An example of this process can be seen with the claim: Giving toys to children will make them happy.

Table 24. Example of Coding Process for the First Analytical Lens

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Advantageous	Giving toys to children will make them happy	Children

As the claim refers to a matter of the future (i.e., what will happen if toys are given to children), the first column is coded as deliberative discourse. As the argument is based on the benefits or advantages of a certain action, the special topic is coded as the advantageous. The instantiation is then recorded in the third column, followed by those affected in the fourth column.

The first analytical lens highlighted the forms of discourse and special topics used by high scoring students in the attempt to persuade NAPLAN markers. It allowed for the comparison of high scoring students' choices with

those prioritised in the NAPLAN prompt, showing whether compliance with the prompt was an important aspect of high scoring texts.

5.3.1.2 - Second analytical lens: School-based persuasive genres.

As outlined in Chapter 3, the school-based persuasive genres that students will likely encounter at school are hortatory and analytical expositions and discussions. These genres vary in their overall purposes and generic structures, and as such the second analytical lens involved unpacking the high scoring texts into their generic stages to determine which genres (if any) they followed. This was usually straightforward, as most students clearly structured their texts in paragraphs that corresponded with generic stages. The coding process involved recording the stages of each text in a column, and relevant instantiations of text in another column. This process is highlighted in the following example text:

> Parents should spend money on toys and games. Buying toys and games for children will make them happy. Toys and games also assist in the development of important skills. For these reasons, parents should continue spending money on toys and games.

Table 25. Example of Coding Process for the Second Analytical Lens

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	Parents should spend money on toys and games
Argument 1	Buying toys and games for children will make them happy
Argument 2	Toys and games also assist in the development of important skills
Reinforcement of thesis	. . . parents should continue spending money on toys and games

As this text features a thesis, a series of arguments and a reinforcement of thesis, it follows the staging of an analytical exposition (Humphrey, 1996; Coffin, 2004). The first and second analytical lenses were designed to reveal high scoring students' persuasive genre choices: how they focused on matters of the past, present or future; how they subsequently based arguments on a range of positive and/or negative topics; and structured their texts in generic stages to serve specific purposes. These results were compared with the analysis of context to show how their writing followed the contextual positioning of the 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking guide and testing procedures. The first two analytical lenses were used to highlight valued genre choices, while the following three lenses were used to highlight valued language choices at the level of discourse.

5.3.1.3 - Third analytical lens: The ATTITUDE system.

The third analytical lens provided insight into the use of attitudinal resources by high scoring students to implicitly or explicitly evaluate phenomena in positive or negative ways (Martin & White, 2005). Following conventions outlined by Martin and White (2005), a modified ATTITUDE analysis framework was developed. This framework differs from the original version in featuring an additional column for the coding of whether evaluations were inscribed or invoked, which was emphasised in the previous chapter as a key aspect of the present study. Following Martin and White (2005), a number of abbreviations were used for the coding process.

+ positive ATTITUDE

- negative ATTITUDE

I inscribed ATTITUDE

V invoked ATTITUDE

The method of analysing ATTITUDE in this study is now demonstrated using an illustrative example. The text is analysed for its use of attitudinal resources in the subsequent table.

> Children do love toys and games. Of course these items are useful because they develop children's cognitive skills. They also might make your children happy. Buying toys and games is probably important because it supports the economy. People who don't buy toys and games are terrible.

Table 26. Example of Coding Process for the Third Analytical Lens

Instantiation	Affect	Judge.	Apprec.	+/-	I/V	Appraised
love	Happi.			+	I	(Children's feelings about) toys and games
useful			Valuat.	+	I	these items (toys and games)
develop children's cognitive skills			Valuat.	+	V	they (toys and games)
make your children happy			Valuat.	+	V	They (toys and games)
important		Propri.		+	I	Buying toys and games
supports the economy		Propri.		+	V	it (buying toys and games)
terrible		Propri.		-	I	People who don't buy toys and games

This analysis highlights how evaluations made in the example text established a prosodic pattern of positive evaluations across the text, and featured a relatively even number of inscribed and invoked meanings. Analysing inscribed and invoked meanings together allows for the research to more easily identify prosodic patterns like this in the text. The main items appraised were toys and games, and the actions of buying or not buying them.

While this example provides insight into the patterns of evaluative meaning in students' texts, without further elaboration they are difficult to interpret. The analysis of attitudinal meanings in high scoring texts are therefore unpacked in multiple stages in Chapter 7, with graphs and tables created to indicate the students' preferences for: particular attitudinal subcategories; specific attitudinal resources within subcategories; their use of positive and negative ATTITUDE; and their use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

5.3.1.4 - Fourth analytical lens: The ENGAGEMENT system.

The fourth analytical lens involved the analysis of students' ENGAGEMENT choices. Martin and White's (2005) guidance for conducting an ENGAGEMENT analysis was followed, yet as with the ATTITUDE analysis, an additional column was added, this time highlighting ENTERTAIN resources in the students' texts. For practical reasons, the following abbreviations were used to code the use of ENGAGEMENT resources.

M	Monoglossic utterances
MA	Monoglossic Assertion
MP	Monoglossic Presumption
HC	Heteroglossically Contractive resources
DD	DISCLAIM DENY
DC	DISCLAIM COUNTER
PCA	PROCLAIM CONCUR AFFIRM
PCC	PROCLAIM CONCUR CONCEDE

PRP	PROCLAIM REINFORCE PRONOUNCE
PRJ	PROCLAIM REINFORCE JUSTIFY
PE	PROCLAIM ENDORSE
HE	Heteroglossically Expansive resources
E	ENTERTAIN
AA	ATTRIBUTE ACKNOWLEDGE
AD	ATTRIBUTE DISTANCE

The ENGAGEMENT analysis framework included five columns, and the coding process is demonstrated as follows:

Example text

Children do love toys and games. Of course these items are useful because they develop children's cognitive skills. They also might make your children happy. Buying toys and games is important because it supports the economy. People who don't buy toys and games are terrible.

Table 27. Example of Coding Process for the Fourth Analytical Lens

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
	PRP		Children *do* love toys and games	
	PCA		*Of course* these items are useful	
	PRJ		because	
		E	might	Low int. probability
MA			Buying toys and games is important	
	PRJ		because	
MA			People who don't buy toys and games are terrible	

This example text features multiple ENGAGEMENT resources, most commonly those that contract dialogic space. For the single instance of the expansive ENTERTAIN, the type of modality used is also recorded in the final column.

As discussed in Section 3.7.2.2, ENGAGEMENT resources can be thought of as on a cline from most contractive to most expansive. In this way, following the thinking of Humphrey (2008) and Körner (2000), the ENGAGEMENT resources have been represented in the following order from the most contractive to the most expansive for the dialogic space they afford:

More expansive	8	ATTRIBUTE DISTANCE
	7	ATTRIBUTE ACKNOWLEDGE
	6	ENTERTAIN
	5	PROCLAIM ENDORSE
	4	PROCLAIM REINFORCE
	3	PROCLAIM CONCUR
	2	DISCLAIM COUNTER
	1	DISCLAIM DENY
More contractive	0	Monoglossic assertion/Monoglossic presumption

Figure 14. ENGAGEMENT cline.

Arranging the ENGAGEMENT resources used in the example text against this engagement cline results in a clear picture of dialogic patterning across the text. This patterning is presented in the following figure:

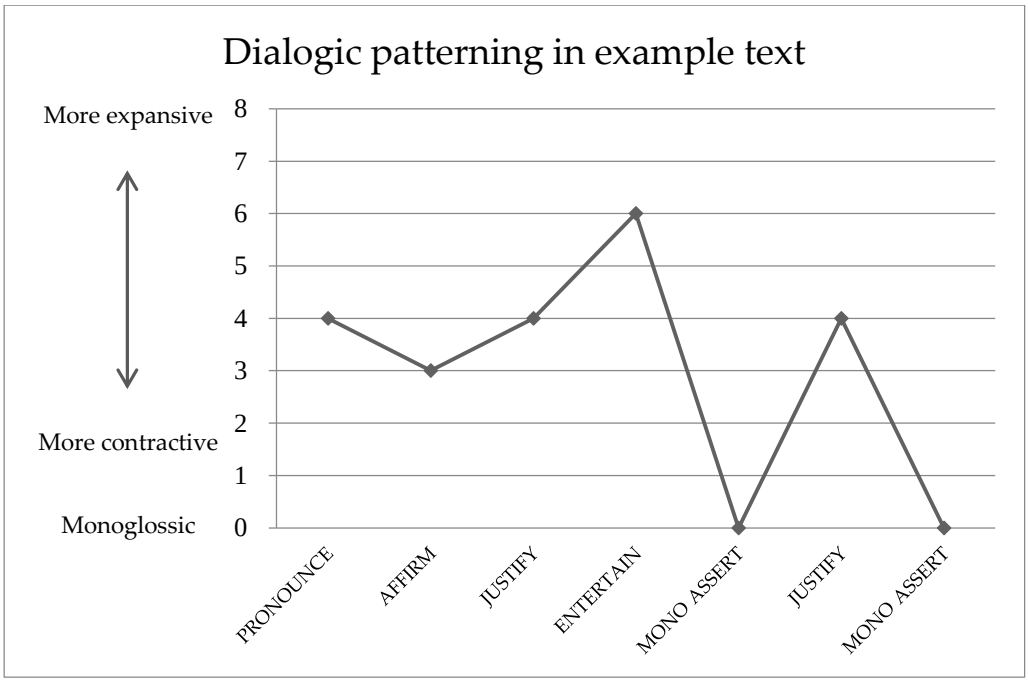

Figure 15. Dialogic patterning in example text.

This type of analysis reveals how ENGAGEMENT resources play the important role in persuasive texts of adjusting dialogic space for alternative

perspectives, as authors attempt to align readers with their viewpoint. As with the analysis of attitudinal values, a number of graphs and tables are provided in Chapter 7 to make visible how the high scoring students relied on the different ENGAGEMENT subcategories, specific expansive and contractive resources, and monoglossic utterances. The ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT analyses highlight evaluative language choices made by the high scoring students.

5.3.1.5 - Fifth analytical lens: Figures of speech.

The fifth analytical lens uses principles of classical rhetoric to explicate the role played by figurative language in the high scoring texts. As will be discussed in Chapter 6, 20 figures of speech were listed or implied in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide and assessment criteria (ACARA, 2013), and this study's final analytical lens sought to highlight how high scoring students made use of these devices. Similar to the analysis of ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT, the students' uses of schemes and tropes were systematically identified, coded and interpreted, providing insight into the range of figurative language choices made by students across year levels.

The analysis of figurative language involved reading each high scoring text a minimum of 20 times with a different figure of speech as the focus of each reading. While this required a substantial amount of time, this was deemed the most reliable approach for the accurate identification of all schemes and tropes in the texts, which were often densely packed with a range of figurative devices. The coding process involved a framework similar to those used for the analysis

of ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT values, and featured columns for: the identified figures of speech; their classification as schemes or tropes; and the instantiations from the texts. The use of this framework is demonstrated below with an example text.

Example text

Toys make children smarter, sportier and more sociable. Parents who don't buy their children toys are mean, mean monsters! Not buying toys is the worst thing a parent can do.

Table 28. Example of Coding Process for the Fifth Analytical Lens

Figure	S/T	Instantiation
Parallelism	S	smarter, sportier and more sociable
Alliteration	S	smarter, sportier and more sociable
Epizeuxis	S	mean, mean
Alliteration	S	mean, mean monsters
Metaphor	T	monsters
Hyperbole	T	the worst thing a parent can do

The high scoring texts were analysed in this way, and the findings have been interpreted and represented in a series of graphs that highlight students' use of figurative language subcategories overall, and their use of specific schemes and tropes. This concluded the analysis of students' persuasive language choices at the level of discourse.

It is important to note that following the pilot study, the analytical framework was modified to remove the three appeals from the rhetorical analysis and the system of GRADUATION from the APPRAISAL analysis. While these tools/systems would likely have produced interesting findings, they were deemed to provide less essential information than the five lenses outlined above, and as such were set aside. This omission represents a considerable limitation of the present study and as such will be added to in future research publications concerning how these high scoring students used the rhetorical appeals and GRADUATION resources to persuade readers.

5.4 - Justification of Research Design

The methods of analysis that make up this study's analytical framework were carefully selected to explicate valued genre and language choices that relate specifically to persuasive writing. This approach revealed:

- The special topics high scoring students used to invent their arguments;
- How the students structured their persuasive texts to serve particular purposes;
- How the students used evaluative language to implicitly and explicitly appraise phenomena in positive and negative ways;
- How the students positioned readers to do likewise, and introduced other voices into their texts;

- How the students varied the expected meaning and structure of words in sentences for numerous rhetorical purposes.

While any number of methods could have been employed to understand various aspects of these students' genre and language choices, the five lenses discussed above provided the most relevant and appropriate solution to address the research questions. In addition, the pilot study justified the intended research approach by highlighting what was practically possible within the scope of the study, suggesting methods of analysis that would provide the most relevant findings, and verifying that the proposed research design would effectively reveal valued persuasive genre and language choices that characterised high scoring texts.

5.4.1 - Consistency and the Search for Truth.

Objectivity is "the essential basis of all good research" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 20). To test the objectivity of qualitative studies, Kirk and Miller (1986) suggested partitioning the concept into reliability and validity, with reliability defined as "the extent to which a measurement procedure yields the same answer however and whenever it is carried out" and validity defined as "the extent to which it gives the correct answer" (p. 19). These aspects of objectivity are further detailed in the following sections.

5.4.2 - Reliability.

Reliability is concerned with the internal consistency of a research project (O'Leary, 2008). Three strategies were employed to increase the reliability of the

present study. Firstly, the analytical framework was used in a pilot study to provide familiarisation with the method before it was used to analyse the eight high scoring texts. Secondly, the study was made more reliable because the methods of analysis were not altered once the study began. Rather, the pilot allowed for the modification of the methodological design, prior to the analysis of the high scoring texts. Thirdly, the findings were made more reliable because the methods of analysis involved the use of well-established, documented, systematic frameworks developed by researchers to cope with the issue of consistency, for instance the use of the ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT system networks (Martin & White, 2005). Where system networks were not available, such as with the analysis of figurative language, their structures and practical applications were emulated (as highlighted in the examples above), leading to a systematic analytical framework of five unique lenses.

5.4.3 - Validity.

Validity is concerned with truth value (i.e., how true a study's findings are) (O'Leary, 2008). In the context of NAPLAN testing, it is acknowledged that valued persuasive genre and language choices might have differed if the NAPLAN marking criteria were modified. The choices investigated in this study are therefore only those valued in one context. To account for this, "rigour and reflexive practice has assured that conclusions are justified, credible, and trustworthy" (O'Leary, 2008, p. 61). As an example of this practice, two distinct methods of triangulation (Webb, Campbell, Schwarz, & Sechrest, 1966) were

employed to enhance the study's validity. Denzin (1978) outlined four types of triangulation that apply to both quantitative and qualitative approaches: data; investigator; theoretical; and methodological. To enhance the validity of the present study, it was designed to incorporate all four methods of triangulation, as is discussed in the following section.

5.4.3.1 - Triangulation.

Theoretical triangulation involves "the use of multiple theories in the same study for the purpose of supporting or refuting findings" (Hussein, 2009, p. 3). In this study, the complementary language traditions of classical rhetoric and SFL were selected due to their relevance to the NAPLAN writing context, and both provided useful lenses to answer the research questions.

Methodological triangulation involves the use of multiple methods to study the same phenomena, which generally occurs at the levels of research design and/or data collection (Mitchell, 1986). For this study, five methods of analysis were drawn from the theories of classical rhetoric and SFL, and integrated in a single framework to provide a more complete picture of high scoring students' language choices.

Data triangulation involves "the use of multiple data sources in the same study for validation purposes" (Hussein, 2009, p. 3). Rather than exploring language choices made by one high scoring student, persuasive texts written by eight high scoring students were analysed and compared across four year levels. While it would have been useful to analyse additional texts at each year level,

the scope of the study – with its multifaceted approach to text analysis – limited data triangulation to eight texts in total.

Investigator triangulation occurred during the analysis stage of the study. This form of triangulation was defined by Hussein (2009) as:

> . . . the use of more than two researchers in any of the research stages in the same study. It involves the use of multiple observers, interviewers, or data analysts in the same study for confirmation purposes. (p. 3)

The high scoring texts used in this study were analysed using the selected lenses by members of the research team, often leading to extensive discussions of the theories that underpin each method of analysis. This use of investigator triangulation allowed for the verification of the coding process, and when combined with the other forms of triangulation, enhanced the validity of the findings.

5.4.4 - Ethical Considerations.

The study was designed to limit the potential of harm or adverse effects to the high scoring students whose work was analysed. As responding to the research questions did not require knowledge of the students' identities, the names of their schools, or the specific geographical regions in which they wrote their texts, it was requested for the data to be de-identified by the DoE prior to its provision. At no stage in the study was personal information about the students required or possessed, beyond their year level at the time of the test, and the knowledge that their persuasive texts were scored in the top 15 for their

year level. Together with the DoE guidelines that prevented the inclusion of more than 10 per cent of the high scoring texts in the thesis at a given time, the students' anonymity was protected as carefully as possible. While this may suggest a relatively straightforward process of attaining ethical clearance to proceed with the study, a considerable obstacle was apparent in the form of consent.

5.4.4.1 - Consent.

As legal caretakers of the NAPLAN data, the DoE were requested to provide the persuasive texts de-identified. In the application for ethical clearance, the Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee (SSHREC) agreed to waive the requirement for the consent of students and their parents, as this process would inadvertently involve the exposure of the students' personal information. According to the National Statement of Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council, & Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 2007), a waiver of consent can be provided when:

a) involvement in the research carries no more than low risk to participants;
b) the benefits from the research justify any risks of harm associated with not seeking consent;
c) it is impracticable to obtain consent (for example, due to the quantity, age or accessibility of records);

d) there is no known or likely reason for thinking that participants would not have consented if they had been asked;

e) there is sufficient protection of their privacy;

f) there is an adequate plan to protect the confidentiality of data. (p. 24)

It was therefore argued that as the identities of the students whose texts were selected would at all stages of the research be unknown to the researchers, there was no risk of them being harmed or discomforted. The research involved the analysis of de-identified texts, and it was impractical to seek consent because at no stage were the students' identities required. The potential outcomes could assist educators in the teaching of persuasive writing, and as there were no perceived risks that students would be negatively affected, it was thought they would consent to the process if this was a necessary aspect of the research. Finally, the students' privacy and the confidentiality of their persuasive texts were protected at all stages of the project. Although it was impractical to seek the consent of students and their families, the consent of the DoE was sought, as caretakers of the completed texts. With these points clarified during the application process, ethical clearance was granted by the SSHREC on the 13th of December, 2011 (ref: H12238), and by the DoE on the 15th of February, 2012.

5.5 - Chapter Summary

This study employed qualitative methods to provide responses to the study's research questions. Data collection involved the purposeful sampling of high scoring persuasive texts written by primary and secondary students for the

2011 NAPLAN test, as they feature valued persuasive genre and language choices. As caretakers of the data, the DoE provided the 15 highest scoring Tasmanian texts for each year level (60 texts in total), in addition to a set of guidelines explaining how the texts could be represented in the thesis.

With the data collected, a pilot study was conducted to test the proposed research design. One high scoring Year 5 text was analysed using seven analytical lenses drawn from classical rhetoric and SFL. Following this, two high scoring texts from each year level were selected for analysis, and five analytical lenses were selected as they provided the most useful descriptions of valued genre and language choices in the pilot study. This process resulted in the forming of an analytical framework consisting of two lenses from classical rhetoric, and three from SFL, across the levels of genre and discourse.

With the analytical framework established, the 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking criteria and testing procedures were analysed to address the first research question by determining how students were positioned to make particular persuasive language choices. The findings of this aspect of the analysis are presented in the next chapter. Following this, persuasive language choices in the high scoring texts were systematically unpacked using the proposed analytical framework, allowing for the second research question to be addressed. The effectiveness of this process subsequently justified the research design.

The research design incorporated a number of strategies to enhance the dependability and authenticity of the findings. Dependability was enhanced by: the researcher's familiarity with the methods of analysis; the strict retention of the same research design throughout the study; and the use of documented, systematic frameworks. The study's authenticity was enhanced by the careful integration of theoretical, methodological, data and investigator triangulation at numerous stages of the project.

Regarding ethical considerations, the research was designed to minimise risks of harm or adverse effects to the high scoring students. Their year levels at the time of the 2011 NAPLAN test represented the only information required to address the research questions. Due to this, it was requested for the texts to be de-identified prior to their provision by the DoE. In the application for ethical clearance, a waiver of students' consent was justified in accordance with the National Statement of Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Research Council, & Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 2007), and approval to conduct the research was subsequently granted by both the SSHREC and the DoE. With these aspects of the study's methodological design outlined, the following chapter describes how students were positioned to respond to the 2011 NAPLAN test.

6 - Analysis of Context

6.0 - Introduction

This chapter examines the overt influence of register on young people's persuasive writing in one context. Specifically, it outlines how register variables of field and mode in the 2011 NAPLAN test positioned students to make particular persuasive genre and language choices. Yet in doing so, these register variables impacted on the tenor relationships at stake in a range of controversial ways. To explain these controversies, this chapter features the following three main sections:

- first, it outlines the social actions and uses of language (i.e., field and mode) involved in NAPLAN testing and marking procedures (Section 6.1);
- second, it investigates these variables further by showing how the 2011 NAPLAN prompt and Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) positioned students to make particular persuasive genre and language choices (Section 6.2);
- third, it considers how these field and mode variables impacted upon tenor relationships of power and solidarity between interactants in this situation (Section 6.3).

As such, the chapter addresses the study's first core research question.

6.1 - The Background of NAPLAN Testing – Field and Mode

The NAPLAN writing test lasts 40 minutes, allowing five minutes for planning, 30 minutes for writing, and five minutes for final editing. In its first three years of operation, the NAPLAN test required students to write narratives, yet in 2011 the focus shifted to persuasive texts. Without prior knowledge of the topic, students were provided with a prompt and asked to argue for or against it. The writing test was the only NAPLAN test that required all students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9 to respond to the same prompt, irrespective of their year level. Once the test began, students were not permitted to access supporting information or discuss their ideas with others. To assess the effectiveness of students' arguments, markers assessed them against 10 criteria, described in the following section.

6.1.1 - NAPLAN Marking Procedures.

"The knowledge, skills and understandings relating to students' writing [that underpin the NAPLAN writing test] were drawn from the Statements of Learning for English (MCEECDYA, 2005)" (ACARA, 2011d, para. 1), resulting in the following 10 marking criteria:

Table 29. NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Criteria (ACARA, 2011d)

	Criteria	Skill focus
1	Audience	The writer's capacity to orient, engage and persuade the reader.
2	Text structure	The organisation of the structural components of a persuasive text (introduction, body and conclusion) into an appropriate and effective text structure.
3	Ideas	The selection, relevance and elaboration of ideas for a persuasive argument.
4	Persuasive devices	The use of a range of persuasive devices to enhance the writer's position and persuade the reader.
5	Vocabulary	The range and precision of contextually appropriate language choices.
6	Cohesion	The control of multiple threads and relationships across the text, achieved through the use of referring words, ellipsis, text connectives, substitutions and word associations.
7	Paragraphing	The segmenting of text into paragraphs that assists the reader to follow the line of argument.
8	Sentence structure	The production of grammatically correct, structurally sound and meaningful sentences.
9	Punctuation	The use of correct and appropriate punctuation to aid the reading of the text.
10	Spelling	The accuracy of spelling and the difficulty of the words used.

Markers scored students' texts against a range of category scores for each criterion, with higher scores reflecting higher levels of achievement. An assessment rubric assisted markers to complete this process by explaining the category scores in detail.

Table 30. Category Scores for the 10 Persuasive Writing Marking Criteria

Audience	Text structure	Ideas	Persuasive devices	Vocabulary	Cohesion	Paragraphing	Sentence structure	Punctuation	Spelling
0-6	0-4	0-5	0-4	0-5	0-4	0-3	0-6	0-5	0-6

As an example, for the Ideas criterion, a score of zero would indicate a student demonstrated no evidence, or insufficient evidence of their ideas, while a maximum score of five would indicate that ideas were generated, selected and crafted to be highly persuasive (ACARA, 2011d). Scores for each category were combined to provide a student's final score for the test, which would then translate to a level on the NAPLAN National Assessment Scale.

The NAPLAN National Assessment Scale consists of ten bands, representing the increasing complexity of skills and understandings assessed by NAPLAN from Years 3 to 9. Six of these bands are used for reporting student performance in each year level, with Year 3 students assessed between Bands 1 and 6, Year 5 students assessed between Bands 3 and 8, Year 7 students assessed between Bands 4 and 9, and Year 9 students assessed between Bands 5 and 10.

The national minimum standard is represented as a single band at each year level, indicating the minimum expectation of literacy and numeracy skills that students should possess at each stage of development. Students who are scored below the national minimum standard do not achieve the outcomes expected for their year level, "and are at risk of being unable to progress satisfactorily at school without targeted intervention" (ACARA, 2011c, p. v). The bands of achievement and national minimum standards for each year level are depicted on the following figure:

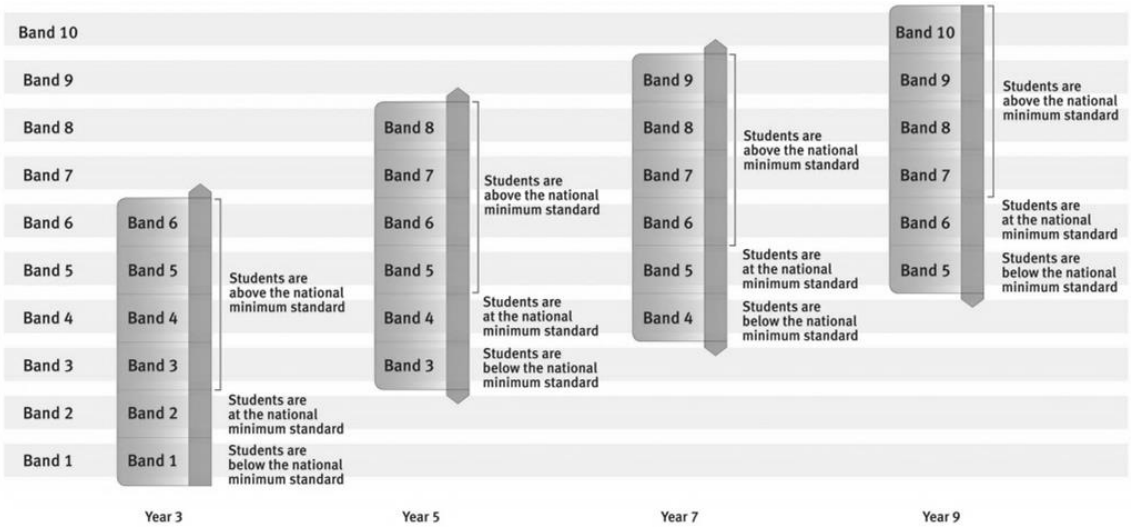

Figure 16. NAPLAN National Assessment Scale (ACARA, 2011c, p. v).

To further emphasise the field of this situation - "what it is that the participants engage in" (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 243), and also the mode – "what part language is playing" (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 243), the following sections unpack the 2011 NAPLAN prompt and Persuasive Writing Marking Guide

(ACARA, 2013) to show how they positioned students to make particular persuasive genre and language choices.

6.2 - Positioning of the 2011 NAPLAN Test: Genre and Discourse

In 2011, 24,820 Tasmanian students constructed persuasive texts for the NAPLAN writing test (ACARA, 2011c) (See Table 32). These students were asked to respond to the prompt that "too much money is spent on toys and games" (See Figure 16). To make visible how this prompt positioned students to make particular genre choices, the prompt wording and images are analysed in the following section.

Table 31. Tasmanian Students who Completed the 2011 NAPLAN Writing Test

Year level	No. of students	Average age
Year 3	6,034	8 yrs 11 mths
Year 5	6,291	10 yrs 11 mths
Year 7	6,308	12 yrs 11 mths
Year 9	6,187	14 yrs 10 mths
Total	24,820	

6.2.1 - Positioning at the Level of Genre.

Figure 17. Prompt for the 2011 NAPLAN test.

From the perspective of classical rhetoric, the thesis statement of the 2011 NAPLAN prompt was most suited to epideictic discourse, as it concerned matters of the present (i.e., how money is spent on toys and games today). The thesis statement implied the wordings to follow would be based on the topics of virtues and vices or assets and achievements to praise or criticise people for spending money on these items.

Prompt extract 1: Thesis statement

Too much money is spent on toys and games.

Yet despite the epideictic nature of the thesis statement, the subsequent issue stage shifted the focus to deliberative discourse, with wordings that outlined arguments based on the topics of the advantageous (i.e., toys and games are beneficial to their users) versus the unworthy (i.e., there may be more important things to spend money on).

Prompt extract 2: Issue stage

People like to play with toys and games to have fun and to relax. Some people think that too much money is spent on toys and games. They think the money could be used for more important things.

The clauses following this stage directed students to complete the writing task in particular ways. Here, wordings positioned them to consider whether they agreed or disagreed with the notion that money could be spent on more important things than toys and games. At no time were they positioned to consider the disadvantages of toys and games, nor how the buying of toys and games might be considered morally good or worthwhile. In this way, the prompt positioned them to use the deliberative topics of the advantageous (in support of spending money on toys and games) or the unworthy (in opposition to spending money on toys and games).

Prompt extract 3: Direction stage

What do you think? Do you agree or disagree? Perhaps you can think of ideas for both sides of this topic.

From the perspective of SFL, the thesis statement suited an analytical exposition, as it presented a position to be agreed or disagreed with, rather than posing a *should we do this or that* question, which would suit hortatory expositions. While the issue stage shifted the form of persuasive discourse from epideictic to deliberative, it emphasised discussion writing as the most suitable school-based persuasive genre, as alternative positions were outlined in support of and in opposition to the prompt. The subsequent direction stage then positioned students to consider if they agreed or disagreed with the idea that money could be spent on more important things, implying that they should support one side of the issue only. While this question positioned students to write analytical expositions, the next statement suggested they may be able to think of ideas for both sides of the issue, allowing students to write discussions also. The prompt then suggested a simple structure for students to follow.

Prompt extract 4: Structure stage

Write to convince a reader of your opinions.

- Start with an introduction. An introduction lets a reader know what you are going to write about.
- Write you opinions on this topic. Give reasons for your opinions. Explain your reasons for your opinions.
- Finish with a conclusion. A conclusion sums up your reasons so that a reader is convinced of your opinions.

This example structure was open enough to fit the staging of all three school-based persuasive genres. In this way, the example structure did not position students to follow the staging of a specific school-based persuasive genre.

Nine of the ten images in the prompt depicted children having fun and exercising their minds and bodies with toys and games. These everyday, concrete images positioned students to focus arguments against the thesis on the topic of the advantageous (e.g., toys and games are fun, toys and games allow you to exercise, etc.), and therefore to write deliberative texts. By contrast, the final image depicted a number of toys in a rubbish bin, implying that the advantages brought by toys and games are limited. In this way, the final image positioned students to consider how toys and games are potentially unimportant, and by extension may represent unworthy purchases. A summary of how the wording and images of the 2011 NAPLAN prompt positioned students to make particular persuasive genre choices is provided in the following table:

Table 32. Summary of Positioning at the Level of Genre

Classical rhetoric	SFL
• The prompt wording positioned students to use the deliberative topics of the advantageous (in opposition to the thesis statement) or the unworthy (in support of the thesis statement)	• The prompt wording positioned students to write analytical expositions or discussions
• Aside from one exception, all prompt images positioned students to focus arguments against the thesis on the deliberative topic of the advantageous	• The example structure did not match the staging of a specific school-based persuasive genre

Beyond the NAPLAN prompt, the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) also positioned students to make particular persuasive language choices regarding figurative language and resources of APPRAISAL. This positioning is highlighted in the following sections.

6.2.2 - Positioning at the level of discourse

6.2.2.1 – Figures of Speech in the Persuasive Writing Marking Guide.

Figures of speech feature prominently in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013). Of the ten marking criteria, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 list figures of speech explicitly or imply them by describing their effects. A total of 20 unique figures of speech are listed or implied in this manner, as indicated in the table below.

Table 33. Figures of Speech in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide

Criterion 4: Persuasive devices
• Emphasis
  ○ "Repetition for effect" (assonance, epizeuxis) (p. 87).
  ○ "Words or phrases at the beginning or end of successive clauses" (anadiplosis, anaphora, epanalepsis, epistrophe, conduplicatio) (p. 87).
  ○ "Repetitions and parallel constructions" (antithesis, climax, parallelism) (p. 87).
  ○ "Paired conjunctions for emphasis" (polysyndeton) (p. 77).
• Figurative language
  ○ "alliteration" (p. 87).
  ○ "similes" (p. 87).
  ○ "metaphor" (p. 87).
  ○ "personification" (p. 87).
  ○ "irony" (p. 87).
  ○ "hyperbole" (p. 87).
  ○ "rhetorical questions" (p. 88).

Criterion 5: Vocabulary
• Figurative language
  ○ "*metaphor*" (p. 89).
  ○ "*similes*" (p. 89).

Criterion 6: Cohesion
• Word associations
  ○ "Repetition" (*anaphora*) (p. 92).
  ○ "Questions that introduce each aspect of a topic" (*hypophora*) (p. 83).

Criterion 7: Paragraphing • "Beginning paragraphs with a question which is briefly answered" (*hypophora*) (p. 83).
Criterion 8: Sentence structure • "Asking questions" (*procatalepsis*) (p. 93).

Criterion 4 of the marking guide assesses "the use of a range of persuasive devices to enhance the writer's position and persuade the reader"

(ACARA, 2013, p. 6). Specific figures of speech listed here include alliteration, similes, metaphor, personification, irony, hyperbole and rhetorical questions, while others are implied via statements of their effects, such as the use of "repetitions and parallel constructions" (i.e., antithesis, climax and parallelism); the use of "repetition for effect" (i.e., assonance and epizeuxis); the use of "words or phrases at the beginning or end of successive clauses or statements" (i.e., anadiplosis, anaphora, epanalepsis, epistrophe and conduplicatio) (ACARA, 2013, p. 87); and the use of "paired conjunctions for emphasis" (i.e., polysyndeton) (p. 77). While many figures of speech appeared in Criterion 4, a smaller number appeared in a range of other criteria, as follows.

Criterion 5 references specifically the importance of metaphor and similes (ACARA, 2013). Criterion 6 features an example of anaphora to highlight the role played by repetition in enhancing lexical cohesion, and hypophora to introduce each aspect of the topic with a question (ACARA, 2013). Criterion 6 also features hypophora as each paragraph is introduced with a question which is briefly answered (ACARA, 2013). The last criterion that features a figure is Criterion 8, which includes examples of procatalepsis to highlight more sophisticated sentence structures, such as an "extended complex sentence with extended (compound) dependent clause following the main clause," and an "extended complex sentence containing multiple dependent clauses" (p. 95). These 20 figures of speech are now categorised as schemes or tropes and defined with examples in the following tables:

Table 34. Schemes in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide

Scheme	Definition	Example
Alliteration	repetition of initial or medial consonants in adjacent words	Already American vessels had been searched, seized, and sunk (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 389)
Anadiplosis	repetition of the last word of one clause at the beginning of the following clause	Labor and care are rewarded with success, success produces confidence, and confidence relaxes industry (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 392)
Anaphora	repetition of the same word or group of words at the beginning of successive clauses	We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields. . . (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 390)
Antithesis	the juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, often in parallel structure	Though studious, he was popular; and though inflexible, he was candid (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 382)
Assonance	repetition of similar vowel forms in the stressed syllables of adjacent words	Had Gray written often thus, it had been v*a*in to bl*a*me and useless to pr*a*ise him (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 389)
Climax	arrangement of words or clauses in order of increasing importance	Let a man acknowledge obligations to his family, his country, and his God (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 393)
Conduplic-atio	repetition of a key word from a preceding clause at or near the beginning of the next	Working adults form the largest group of customers for online courses in the US. Online courses allow for them to… (Harris, 2003, p. 112)

Epanalepsis	repetition at the end of a clause of the word that occurred at the beginning of the clause	And when the shadow fades and is no more, the light that lingers becomes a shadow to another light (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 392)
Epistrophe	repetition of the same word or group of words at the ends of successive clauses	In a cake, nothing tastes like real butter, nothing moistens like real butter, nothing enriches like butter (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 391)
Epizeuxis	repetition of one word or short phrase	This portion of South America is lush, lush, lush (Harris, 2003, p. 120)
Hypophora	asking a question and proceeding to answer it	What was the result of this change in tariffs on the steel industry? The reports clearly… (Harris, 2003, p. 33)
Parallelism	similarity of structure in a pair of words, phrases, or clauses	He tried to make the law clear, precise, and equitable (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 381)
Polysynde-ton	deliberate use of many conjunctions	This semester I am taking English and history and biology (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 388)
Procatalep-sis	anticipates an objection that might be raised by a reader and responds to it	It is argued that if the government ceases mail delivery, small towns will not have a mail service. The answer to this is … (Harris, 2003)

Table 35. Tropes in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide

Trope	Definition	Example
Hyperbole	the use of exaggerated terms for the purpose of emphasis or heightened effect	The one side of my head – the right side – is full of millions of gray hairs (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 403)
Irony	use of a word in such a way as to convey a meaning opposite to the literal meaning of the word	By Spring all the *proud privileges* of trench life, mustard gas, punctured lungs, mud, and gangrene, might be his (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 405)
Metaphor	implied comparison between two things of unlike nature	On the final examination, several students went down in flames (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 396)
Personification	investing abstractions for inanimate objects with human qualities or abilities	The handsome houses on the street to the college were not fully awake, but they looked very friendly (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 402)
Rhetorical question	asking a question, not for the purpose of eliciting an answer but for the purpose of asserting or denying something obliquely	A good student-body is perhaps the most important factor in a great university. How can you possibly make good wine from poor grapes? (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 405)
Simile	explicit comparison between two things of unlike nature	Silence settled down over the audience like a block of granite (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 396)

The prominence of figures of speech in the marking guide emphasises their value in the assessment process. As educators are positioned to focus their teaching on the language choices specified in the NAPLAN marking guides, students are therefore positioned to use them in their writing.

6.2.2.2 – APPRAISAL in the Persuasive Writing Marking Guide.

Beyond rhetorical devices, the marking guide also emphasises the use of linguistic resources of APPRAISAL. For instance, Criterion 1 – Audience – broadly concerns the writer's capacity to orient, engage and persuade readers, which all rely directly on the use of ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT resources.

Within the marking guide, it is stated that students should reveal their values and attitudes when writing about the topic to influence the reader. This requires the use of attitudinal resources, as the students evaluate a range of phenomena positively or negatively (Martin & White, 2005). Even the wording of the NAPLAN prompt features a number of explicit and implicit evaluations of people's feelings (e.g., people like to play with toys and games), and their behaviours (e.g., the money could be used for more important things). The prompt's direction stage positioned students to agree or disagree with these evaluations, and to share their own attitudes about the topic. Their success in achieving this depended on their capacity to use resources of attitude.

To determine a student's score out of six points for the first criterion, markers used an assessment rubric that outlines the requirements for each point. To receive one point, the student's response to audience needs would be limited,

while receiving six points would require confident control over the writer/reader relationship, and for the readers' values and expectations to be taken into account (ACARA, 2013). Such understandings are comparable to the student's ability to use resources of ENGAGEMENT at the level of discourse semantics, and to control tenor relationships at the level of register. For instance, relying heavily on a small subset of ENGAGEMENT resources would result in low scores for this criterion, while higher scores could be achieved with a broader range of contractive and expansive resources (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Swain, 2010). While the 2011 NAPLAN prompt and marking guide did not specifically reference resources of APPRAISAL, they positioned students to use them in particular ways that were awarded with the highest scores. Chapter 7 of this study makes visible the genre and language choices that were awarded in this way.

The 2011 NAPLAN test was implemented to determine "whether or not young Australians have the literacy and numeracy skills that provide the critical foundation for other learning and for their productive and rewarding participation in the community" (ACARA, 2011b, para. 2), yet research has highlighted a growing range of controversies surrounding these tests, including a narrowing of the school curriculum, concerns about student health and well-being, and the gap between NAPLAN testing procedures and more authentic persuasive writing contexts (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012; Thompson, 2013; Wyn, Turnbull, & Grimshaw, 2014). The way the associated register variables of

field and mode impacted upon the tenor relationships at stake are now considered to better understand these controversies.

6.3 - Tenor Relationships at Stake

As outlined in Chapter 3, the successful persuasion of others to think or act in particular ways is heavily reliant on the tenor relationships of power and solidarity that are established between those interacting. The following sections explore the impact of the field and mode variables on these tenor relationships in the situation of NAPLAN testing, beginning with power.

6.3.1 - Power.

When interactants have equal status they can access and take up similar kinds of choices (Poynton, 1985), yet the situation of NAPLAN testing is an example of generational inequality (Poynton, 1985), as ACARA has decided what students will do with their time. In 2011, all Australian Year 3, 5, 7 and 9 students were required to complete the same test at the same time under the same conditions. They had no choice whether they completed the test or not[7], it was simply a requirement of their education. The decisions about what this test required (field) and how it had to be completed (mode) led to a range of

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[7] Students can be exempt from completing the NAPLAN test if their parents explicitly request this.

negative implications for students and teachers, as outlined in the following sections.

6.3.1.1 - Same prompt, different levels of development.

The first problematic decision made by ACARA in 2011 was to require all students to respond to the same prompt, regardless of their level of writing development. While this prompt intended to provide students with contextual boundaries to construct their texts, these boundaries constrained students' choices when forming arguments for or against the thesis statement. As outlined in the Chapter 3, schooling involves transitioning students from the everyday literacy practices that typify childhood, to practices of the technical, specialised and critical domains that are valued in the adult world (Macken-Horarik, 1996). At eight years of age, children in Year 3 are largely unfamiliar with language practices of higher domains, and as such, NAPLAN test designers had to provide a prompt that was accessible to them by featuring concrete wordings and images from the everyday domain, such as having fun with toys and using them for exercise. As a side effect, upper primary and secondary school students were constrained to the same concrete meanings, while their success on the task (i.e., scoring at the national minimum standard or higher for their year level) required them to operate in more complex domains of learning.

6.3.1.2 - The mystery of the topic.

ACARA used its high status to require students to complete the test with no prior knowledge of the topic. Once the test commenced, students were not

permitted to access external sources or speak with their peers, and were therefore forced to rely on personal opinion and prior knowledge of the topic to construct their arguments. As a result, the test positioned students to write persuasive texts that were not based on evidence, and that did not feature counterarguments. For students to produce the sorts of counterarguments that are valued in adult persuasive writing, they must have access to texts offering different perspectives, and the ability to contrast the positions in these texts (Kobayashi, 2009, 2010). A study by Nussbaum and Kardash (2005) found that providing students with such texts prior to a writing task served to increase the quality of their counterarguments. Countering arguments requires the use of ENGAGEMENT resources such as ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE, ATTRIBUTE: DISTANCE, which writers use to bring external voices into their texts before countering them. The ability to compare, contrast and integrate external arguments into persuasive texts is strongly valued in contexts beyond NAPLAN, yet made more challenging in this situation by the limitations of the task.

6.3.1.3 - Writing for an inauthentic purpose.

The 2011 NAPLAN writing test was an artificial exercise, instigated and controlled by more powerful educational experts, and completed by relatively powerless children and teenagers across the country. The purpose of the test was to determine how effectively the students could construct persuasive texts. Yet research by Beach and Doerr-Stevens (2009) suggested students are more motivated by authentic persuasive writing tasks that have the ability to address

status quo issues that meaningfully affect their lives. Authentic persuasive writing experiences allow students "to perceive their writing not as simply fulfilling an assignment but as contributing to transforming the status quo through making recommendations" (Beach & Doerr-Stevens, 2009, p. 465). This situation highlights differences in students' and adults' common persuasive writing practices. Martin (1985) states "most children work in make-believe contexts, [with] analytical exposition mainly used to demonstrate that content has been learned, and not usually to analyse and interpret the world in new ways" (p. 33). Similarly, "hortatory exposition is used in mock debates concerning issues that crop up in social science or history, [though] rarely used to challenge the structure of the world outside the classroom" (Martin, 1989, p. 33). By comparison, adults use exposition for authentic purposes, "to interpret the world in new ways, and to challenge existing social orders" (Martin, 1989, p. 34). Students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN writing test were likely aware that their arguments about toys and games would not impact the issue at stake in any authentic way.

In contrast with the social purposes of the school-based persuasive genres, the 2011 NAPLAN writing test was underpinned by a subliminal line of reasoning that had little to do with the given prompt. Success on the task required students to demonstrate they could construct a persuasive text that met the demands of the marking criteria. ACARA (2013) openly confirms this, stating that students "may make decisions about themes and subjects they

choose to write about and the details they use to develop their ideas. The task does not specify a preference for particular content on the given topic" (p. 5). In other words, it was not important what the students thought or wrote about the topic, so long as they wrote it in the right way. This practice is far removed from authentic, real world purposes of persuasive writing.

6.3.1.4 - Student health and well-being.

Another concerning implication of the inequalities in this situation relates to the high levels of stress felt by a range of educational stakeholders, including the students who completed the test and the teachers who prepared them for it (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012; Thompson, 2013). A study by Dulfer, Polesel and Rice (2012) investigated the impact of NAPLAN tests on Australian education programs, teachers and students. The study's survey was completed by 8,353 members of the Australian Education Union and other independent education unions, with questions focusing on the impact of NAPLAN on school enrolments, children's health and well-being, the curriculum, teaching approaches, and children's learning. The study found that 90% of teachers felt the test made students stressed, while 62% witnessed students crying due to NAPLAN. Similar sentiments were expressed by Thompson (2013), whose research into how the results were used to rank schools after the test found that "teachers saw that stress and anxiety resulted as an unintended consequence of the results being used to measure the ability of the student and/or the quality of the teacher and/or the worth of the education experience a school offered" (p.

72). Such research stresses the lack of reciprocity of choice in this situation, with students and even their teachers powerless to avoid the mandatory testing program and the public dissemination of its results.

6.3.1.5 - Narrowing the school curriculum.

The increased levels of stress and public pressure to succeed on the tests have led many Australian teachers to narrow their teaching programs by focusing on NAPLAN-like learning opportunities. In their study, Dulfer, Polesel and Rice (2012) found that 73% of the 8,353 teachers surveyed structured their teaching specifically to prepare students for the test, with 46% holding weekly practice tests up to five months in advance of the actual tests, and 69% spending less time teaching subjects that were not part of the testing program. This highlights how, in preparing for the various components of the NAPLAN test, the school curriculum has been narrowed to focus most attention on the literacy and numeracy aspects being tested. This narrowing "has identifiable negative implications for the quality of education that children and young people experience in Australian schools" (Wyn, Turnbull, & Grimshaw, 2014, p. 6), and risks the ability for schools to produce graduates who are optimistic, knowledgeable and skilled in a range of areas, able to apply learning to changing contexts, and actively engaged in the community (Ramsay & Rowan, 2013).

Overall, students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN test possessed no control over the markers to guarantee any action was taken on the purchasing of

more or less toys and games. Their authority in achieving this was restricted by their various young ages (generational inequality) and low status as school students, which entailed an absence of specialised knowledge on the topic being argued. In this situation, there was little illusion that the students' arguments would have any authentic impact on their markers' purchasing habits regarding toys and games, which undermines the purposes of the forms of persuasive discourse and school-based persuasive writing genres. Yet beyond these issues surrounding tenor relationships of power, relationships of solidarity were also negatively affected by the field and mode in this situation.

6.3.2 - Solidarity.

The tenor relationship of solidarity posits that "the better you know someone, the more feelings you will share and the less you need to say to share them" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 31). Solidarity is particularly relevant for persuasive writing, where the goal is to persuade readers to think or act in particular ways, often through the expression of feelings (ATTITUDE). To enhance the likelihood that readers will comply with an appeal for action, writers of persuasive texts must align them into shared communities of values, which involves "assessing the range of possible subject positions of the reader/listener and then manoeuvring as many of these readers/listeners as possible towards the position of the writer/speaker" (Humphrey, 2008, p. 137). Writers who do not possess institutional control over their readers – such as students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN writing test – must instead endeavour to establish

strong points of solidarity with them, yet the mystery of who the students were attempting to persuade limited their ability to achieve this.

6.3.2.1- The mystery of the audience.

Students who completed the writing test were at no stage aware of the identities of markers they were attempting to persuade, and therefore had no knowledge of their beliefs or views about the issue at stake, nor their prior experiences. As a result it was more difficult for these students to 'win over' readers by establishing high levels of solidarity with them, as the range of possible subject positions were essentially unlimited. At the heart of effective persuasion lies a speaker/writer's ability to alter their rhetorical practices to target the specific needs of a given audience (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004), and this is something even Year 1 students can accomplish with teacher prompting (Wollman-Bonilla, 2001). Students who are familiar with their audience "are more likely to consider potential counterarguments that could be voiced . . . [which] serves to create a sense of context that fosters rehearsal of inner speech arguments" (Newell et al., 2011, p. 289). For the 2011 NAPLAN writing test, students were free to target any audience they desired, emphasising how this test had little to do with authentic persuasion, but was rather implemented as a diagnostic tool to assess a range of criteria. On its own, this diagnostic tool causes little harm and provides useful data, but when its use by a range of stakeholders pressures teachers to narrow the curriculum and compromise the

health and well-being of students, questions must be asked about the worth or effectiveness of this process.

6.4 - Chapter Summary

The 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking guide and testing procedures positioned students to write persuasive texts in particular ways. At the level of genre, the prompt positioned them to base their arguments on special topics of deliberative discourse (i.e., the advantageous and the unworthy), and to follow the staging of either analytical expositions or discussions. At the level of discourse, the marking guide positioned them to use a wide range of figures of speech and resources of APPRAISAL from the ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT systems.

Yet at the heart of the 2011 NAPLAN writing test was a range of strict testing procedures decided upon by powerful educational experts at ACARA. These procedures made it compulsory for all students in Year 3, 5, 7 and 9 to complete the test, writing about a topic they were not prepared for. Students were prevented from accessing external sources after reading the prompt, limiting their arguments to personal opinion and hearsay. The only information provided to guide their thinking was a prompt that, in needing to cater for the needs of the youngest year level, focused exclusively on concrete, simple ideas in its wording and images, thus constraining the conceptualisation of the topic to the everyday domain of learning.

Students were also limited in their ability to establish high levels of solidarity with the unknown markers. While this may not be problematic for the

purposes of the NAPLAN test, the disproportionate amount of time spent preparing students to write for NAPLAN-like situations risks the development of persuasive writing skills that are valued in more authentic contexts.

The highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian students for the 2011 NAPLAN test, feature persuasive genre and language choices that are highly valued by a range of stakeholders in Australian primary and secondary school contexts. Understanding more about these valued choices is of significance if educators are to assist other students to more effectively persuade readers. This is the focus of the following chapter.

7 - Analysis of Texts

7.0 - Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of eight high scoring persuasive texts. It addresses the following research questions:

2. What choices were valued in the highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test?
    a. What persuasive genre choices were valued?
    b. What language choices were valued at the level of discourse?
    c. What are the practical and theoretical implications of these findings?

From the perspective of classical rhetoric, the texts were analysed to reveal their alignment with forms of persuasive discourse and their use of figurative language. From the perspective of SFL, the texts were analysed to show how were written in the structure of school-based persuasive genres, and featured the use of APPRAISAL resources to evaluate phenomena and position readers to do likewise.

7.0.1 - Average Word Lengths.

When considering these students' persuasive language choices, it is useful to first acknowledge the average word length of texts produced in each year level. This provides a degree of clarification later in the chapter when numbers of linguistic resources are reported as being used and compared across

year levels. For instance, the use of particular resources increased in accordance with the increase in average word counts, while others followed other patterns. These averages are presented in the following figure:

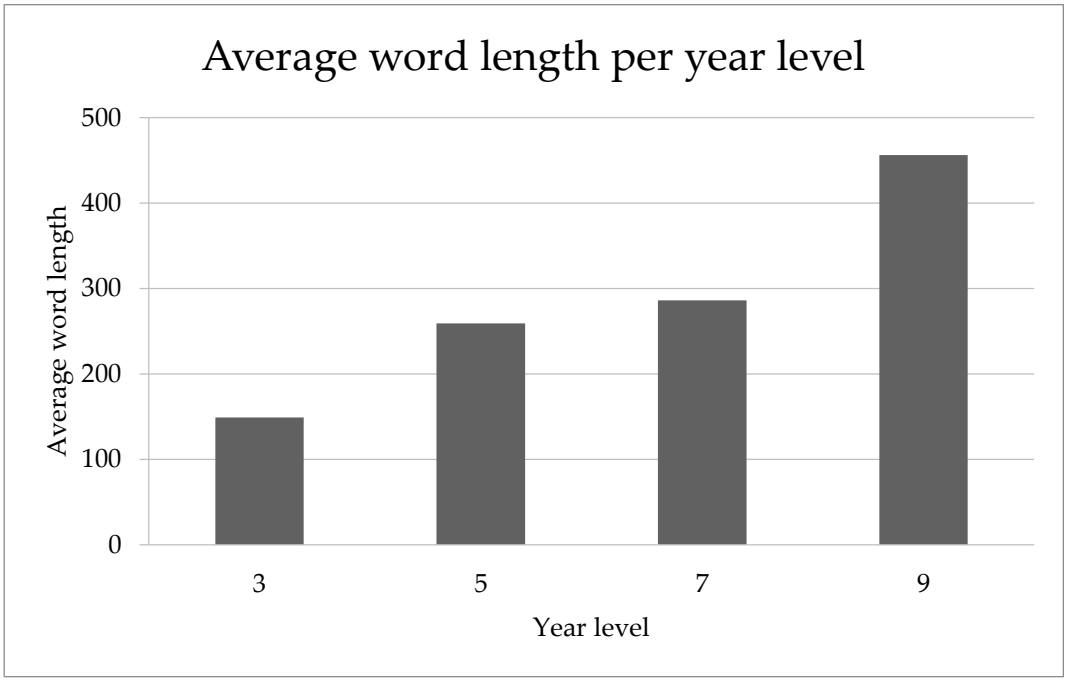

Figure 18. Average word length per year level.

This initial calculation highlighted relatively large increases in average word lengths between Year 3 (149 words) and Year 5 (259 words), and Year 7 (286 words) and Year 9 (456 words), compared to the more consistent average word length between Year 5 and Year 7. With this background information established, the next section reports of the analysis of students' persuasive genre choices.

7.2 - Analysis of Genre Choices

7.2.1 - Year 3 Genre Choices.

From the perspective of classical rhetoric, the selected Year 3 texts were analysed to show their alignment with the three forms of persuasive discourse and use of special topics. The first Year 3 student constructed an entirely deliberative text, focusing mainly on the topic of the advantageous. This is highlighted in the following table:

Table 36. Year 3 Text 1 – Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) can be very helpful	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) can be very educational	Not specified
Deliberative	Worthy	(Buying toys) can help support	Jobs and economy
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Buying toys can) support	Companies like Kmart
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) develop social skills	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) create a much needed sense of belonging	Children
Deliberative	Worthy	(Toys) make sure they get along well	Children

The arguments in this text focused on the advantages of spending money on toys and games for children and companies. In addition, they portrayed the spending of money on these items as a worthy endeavour, as it supports jobs

and the economy, and aids the development of children's social skills, leading to a more harmonious society. In this case arguments that relate to individual people or companies benefiting are classified as advantageous, whereas arguments that concern the greater good of society are classified as worthy.

From the perspective of SFL, the prompt positioned students to write analytical expositions or discussions, yet despite this positioning, the first high scoring Year 3 student constructed a hortatory exposition.

Table 37. Year 3 Text 1 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	Toys and games can be very helpful
Appeal for action	All children should have toys
Argument 1	(Toys) can be very educational
Argument 2	(Buying toys) support jobs and the economy
Argument 3	(Toys make it) easier to have family time and develop social skills
Reinforcement of appeal	…all children should receive toys

As with a typical hortatory exposition (Coffin, 2004; Humphrey, 1996), the text began with the thesis and appeal for action stages. These were followed by a series of three arguments in favour of spending money on toys and games, and a reinforcement of the appeal for action.

By comparison, the second high scoring Year 3 student also opposed the prompt, however focused their arguments on the alternate topics of deliberative discourse: the disadvantageous and the unworthy. In addition, the text began with a topic of judicial discourse (i.e., a question of definition), as the author clarified their position on the notion that money spent on toys and games is wasted.

Table 38. Year 3 Text 2 – Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Judicial	Question of definition	everyone liked toys and games at one point… it isn't wasted money	N/A
Deliberative	Unworthy	(Without toys) the fun would be sucked out of the world	The world
Deliberative	Unworthy	(Without toys) …become a miserable and desolate place.	The world
Deliberative	Advantageous	like toys and games	Children
Deliberative	Disadvantageous	(Without toys) …would be so tired	Parents
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Playing with toys) makes people relax	People
Deliberative	Disadvantageous	(Without toys) …would be hyperactive and very tired.	People

In this text, the Year 3 student argued that children and their parents would be disadvantaged if children received fewer toys. The author portrayed

this act as unworthy, as it would lead a miserable and desolate society, devoid of fun. While the text briefly mentioned that having toys can be advantageous, a clear focus was given to the topics of the disadvantageous and the unworthy.

While the second Year 3 text also began with a thesis, it concluded with a reinforcement of thesis stage rather than an appeal for action, and as such can be described as an analytical exposition. The text featured three clear arguments in support of spending money on toys and games. In the reinforcement of thesis stage, the author listed the three arguments again, reinforcing why they were not in favour of the prompt. The purpose of this text was not to persuade the reader to take some action, but rather to persuade them to view the student's perspective against this *ridiculous concept* as a sound argument.

Table 39. Year 3 Text 2 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	not in favour with this ridiculous concept
Argument 1	(Without toys) the fun would be sucked out of the world
Argument 2	(Without toys) parents would be so tired
Argument 3	(Playing with toys) makes people relax
Reinforcement of thesis	(Without toys) there would be no more fun… parents could get tired… (Toys) make people relax

The high scoring Year 3 students were able to draw on a variety of topics to argue for the same side of an issue, structuring their texts clearly with multiple arguments to support a given viewpoint and to appeal for action.

While the first Year 3 text simply restated their appeal for action to conclude their text, the second supported their final claim with a summary of their previous arguments. Both students separated arguments into paragraphs, and followed the staging of analytical and hortatory expositions clearly, suggesting these were valued choices by the markers who scored them highly.

7.2.2 - Year 5 Genre Choices.

The high scoring Year 5 texts were also analysed for their genre choices. The first Year 5 text was largely deliberative in nature, though featured topics of judicial discourse at the beginning and end that opposed the notion that money spent on toys and games is wasted.

Table 40. Year 5 Text 1 – Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Judicial	Question of definition	we are not wasting money	N/A
Deliberative	Worthy	the money could go on for a better world	The world
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) help you learn. go on and go on learning	People
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Playing with toys) keeps you fit	You/us
Deliberative	Unworthy	(We could) using money that could go on for the better	The world
Deliberative	Worthy	(We could) help the charity to help people with disabilities and poor people	Needy people
Deliberative	Advantageous	we need games and toys	We/us
Judicial	Question of definition	We are not wasting money… we must think twice	N/A

Unlike the Year 3 texts, this Year 5 text argued for both sides of the issue. Arguments on one side focused on the advantages toys and games offer people, while the other focused on the worthiness of spending money on alternatives to toys and games. The author suggested that toys and games assist people to learn and keep fit, while alternatives such as supporting charities may represent more important investments. To conclude, the author sided more with the advantages brought by toys than with the worth of alternatives, but still provided space for

those who disagree by implying that we must think carefully before buying toys and games.

As the text explored the issue from two perspectives, presenting arguments for each side before making a final judgement, it matched the structure of a discussion. The aim of the text was to argue for both perspectives on the issue, and to provide a final judgement on which side was more warranted overall.

Table 41. Year 5 Text 1 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Issue	we are not wasting money… but the money could go on for a better world
Argument 1 – First perspective	some toys and games can help you learn
Argument 2 – First perspective	Secondly, it (playing with toys) keeps you fit
Argument 1 – Second perspective	we are using money that could go on for the better
Judgement	We are not wasting money with them, but… we must think twice

The text featured two arguments against the prompt heading (i.e., too much *is not* spent on toys and games), and one argument in support of the prompt heading. In the judgement stage, the author sided with the first perspective, though with qualifications that toys and games should only be

bought when people carefully consider alternatives that may be more important.

By contrast, the second high scoring Year 5 text was one-sided and entirely deliberative. The author focused exclusively on the topics of the advantageous and the disadvantageous to highlight the benefits of buying and having toys and games for the reader, people in general and sick children.

Table 42. Year 5 Text 2 – Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Disadvan.	(Without toys) tired of sitting on the couch with nothing to do?	You
Deliberative	Disadvan.	(Without toys) people around the world sit on their couch bored?	People
Deliberative	Advantag.	(Having toys) having fun while getting some exercise!	You
Deliberative	Advantag.	(Toys) usually not expensive	You
Deliberative	Advantag.	(Toys) great fun for anyone	Anyone
Deliberative	Advantag.	(Toys) don't have to play inside…	You
Deliberative	Advantag.	Laughter is a cure (caused by playing with toys)	Sick children
Deliberative	Disadvan.	(Sickness) leaves them in hospital, bedridden for months/years	Sick children
Deliberative	Advantag.	(Playing with toys) It is rewarding and makes them feel better	You/ children
Deliberative	Advantag.	want something cheap, to see a smile on sick children's faces or want to be fit, not bored and happy	You

The author listed a number of reasons why toys and games enhance lives: they are fun; they allow you to exercise; they are cheap; they can be played anywhere; and they can help to cure illnesses by causing laughter and happiness. The author suggested that if you do not have enough toys and games, you will be bored, and implied that any illnesses you have may not be cured. Overall, the Year 3 and Year 5 texts were similar in featuring one entirely deliberative text, and one mainly deliberative yet also partially judicial text.

Also contrasting with the choices made by the first Year 5 student, the second constructed a hortatory exposition. With a thesis, a series of arguments and a reinforcement of thesis, the second text may appear at first to be an analytical exposition, however a number of features confirm it to be hortatory in nature.

Table 43. Year 5 Text 2 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	I think I found the solution to your problem!
Argument 1	You would be having fun while getting some exercise!
Argument 2	Toys/games are usually not expensive
Argument 3	There are cures for these illnesses but there is also one that really does help. Laughter. Toys/games can do that
Reinforcement of thesis/ appeal	go with toys and games.

Firstly, the main aim of the text was not simply to prove that the author's arguments were valid, but rather to persuade readers to purchase more toys and games. This involved an appeal for action during the reinforcement stage, suggesting those in favour of the listed benefits *should go with toys and games*. In addition, the text overall was written in the style of a telemarketing spiel rather than a formal essay, with numerous language choices that are more appropriate for hortatory rather than analytical expositions (Martin, 1989).

7.2.3 - Summary of Primary Students' Persuasive Genre Choices.

The high scoring primary school students produced largely deliberative texts. Less predictable was their use of special topics, other than those emphasised in the prompt wording and images: the advantageous in support of toys and games; and the worthy in support of less toys and games. Despite being positioned to focus on these topics, the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 students made a number of different choices to produce texts with a wide variety of arguments.

The first Year 3 student focused on the positive sides of the two topics of deliberative discourse: the worthy and the advantageous, constructing their text in the structure of a hortatory exposition. Conversely, the second Year 3 student focused on the negative sides of the same topics: the unworthy and the disadvantageous, and along with a topic of judicial discourse, constructed their text in the structure of an analytical exposition.

The first Year 5 student followed the first Year 3 student in focusing their arguments on the positive sides of deliberative topics, yet split up the topics onto each side of the issue, arguing for both sides before making a judgement in the final stage of their discussion. The second Year 5 student constructed a one-sided argument, focusing on the positive and negative sides of the advantageous topic, within the structure of a hortatory exposition.

The four primary school students made various choices regarding the use of special topics, suggesting that high scoring texts did not need to be based on the same arguments, so long as they wrote within the form of discourse set up by the prompt wording and images (i.e., deliberative). In addition, each of the high scoring primary school texts clearly followed the structures of school-based persuasive genres, emphasising this as a feature of high scoring texts.

7.2.4 - Year 7 Genre Choices.

The first Year 7 text featured a number of deliberative arguments based on the advantages toys and games bring to children and other people. These were accompanied by sole arguments based on the deliberative topics of the worthy and the disadvantageous, as well as a judicial question of quality. This was the first text to feature an argument that incorporated two topics from two forms of persuasive discourse in one sentence, with a deliberative and judicial argument used to conclude the text.

Table 44. Year 7 Text 1 – Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Worthy	toys are good and deserve to have money spent on them	N/A
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) help children to develop cognitive and motor skills	Children
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	(Without toys) …very hard to live a normal life.	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) help instil in kids a sense of wonder… to understand and wonder how things work	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) are fun… makes them feel happy… with happiness comes self-worth, high self-esteem and love of life	People
Deliberative ALSO Judicial	Advantageous A question of quality	(Toys) help to educate, develop and enrich lives of children… is it really that bad to spend some money on them?	Children N/A

The author argued that toys and games develop a child's cognitive and motor skills, instil in them a sense of wonder and understanding about the world, educate them and enrich their lives. They also suggested that as toys and games make children happy, this would increase a child's self-worth and self-esteem, which would in turn increase their love of life. By comparison, they argued that not having access to toys and games would stifle this development,

making it more difficult to live a *normal* life. By outlining this diverse range of advantages, the author concluded with a question of quality, focusing on the motives of parents who buy toys for their children. The author implied through the use of a rhetorical question that spending money on toys and games is justified by the benefits they bring.

Regarding the staging of their text, the student constructed an analytical exposition, featuring a clear thesis stage, a series of arguments, and a reinforcement of the thesis. The author's aim was simply to argue against the prompt heading, and prove the validity of their claims.

Table 45. Year 7 Text 1 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	to argue against the statement… there are many reasons that toys are good and deserve to have money spent on them
Argument 1	toys help children to develop cognitive and motor skills
Argument 2	playthings help instil in kids a sense of wonder about their world
Argument 3	toys are fun!
Reinforcement of thesis	If toys help to educate, develop and enrich… is it really that bad to spend some money on them?

The second Year 7 text was also largely deliberative in nature, though featured other forms of persuasive discourse at key points in each paragraph to achieve specific rhetorical effects. For example, the student concluded the third

and fourth paragraphs with judicial questions of fact, grounding their claims in supposedly *proven facts* rather than opinion.

Table 46. Year 7 Text 2 - Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Judicial ALSO Deliberative	A question of fact Advantageous	(NAPLAN thesis heading) is completely incorrect! Games and toys have been proven to (Toys) improve happiness, to be educational… let a child be active and physical	N/A Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) let a child escape to a world that is entirely their own	Children
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	(Growing up) …stressful time	Children
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	(Without toys) …may develop anxiety, depression or other mental illnesses	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) can also be educational	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) massively contribute… intellectual ability, their general brain development… social ability	Children
Deliberative <u>ALSO</u> Deliberative	Disadvantage. Unworthy	(Without toys) brain will develop much slower (Without toys, nothing will) teach them about love, respect, the world and how to act in society	Baby Baby
Judicial	A question of fact	(Without toys) it has been scientifically proven	N/A

ALSO Deliberative	Disadvantage.	to have mental problems when they reach adulthood	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Playing with toys) active and healthy	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Giving sports toys) …may become the next basketball legend	Children
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	(Not giving toys) will make them lazy, unhealthy and inactive	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Sports toys) let kids get outdoors… always excellent	Children
Judicial ALSO Deliberative	A question of fact Advantageous	Recent studies have shown (Having sports toys) 75% healthier than someone without	N/A Children
Deliberative	Unworthy	(Not buying toys) can't be bothered… think what this will do to your child	Your child
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	(Not buying toys) asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom	Children
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) improve happiness, health and brain development	Children
Epideictic	Virtues and vices	(Not giving toys) mean, cruel and just plain unfair!	Children

The author concluded the second, third, and fifth paragraphs by emphasising that a lack of toys and games would greatly disadvantage children,

and risk the development of anxiety, depression, and other mental illnesses. In addition, such children would be at risk of weight issues and failing at school. The author also highlighted advantages brought by toys and games in allowing children to escape to a stress free and educational world where their brains develop, where their happiness and social skills improve, and where they can get outside to be active and healthy. This text was the first to feature both topics of deliberative discourse in a single argument, with a lack of toys and games said to lead to the slower development of a baby's brain (disadvantageous), yet also their failure to learn about love, respect and how to act in society (unworthy). Another argument based on the unworthy suggested it is wrong for parents to buy luxury items for themselves if this prevents them from buying toys and games for their children. This author was also the first to feature a topic of epideictic discourse, criticising parents who do not provide their children with toys and games as *mean, cruel and just plain unfair!* In this way, the text was the first to include all three forms of persuasive discourse.

Regarding staging, the Year 7 student constructed an analytical exposition with a thesis stage, a series of arguments, and a reinforcement of the thesis. The aim was to persuade the reader why the prompt is *completely incorrect*, rather than persuading them to take some action.

Table 47. Year 7 Text 2 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	the statement… is completely incorrect! toys have been proven to improve happiness, to be educational… let a child be active
Argument 1	Toys improve happiness by letting a child escape to a world that is entirely their own
Argument 2	(Toys) massively contribute to a young child's intellectual ability, their general brain development and… social ability
Argument 3	Toys also let a child be active and healthy
Argument 4	Not letting children have toys is… asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom
Reinforce. of thesis	Toys improve happiness, health and brain development

7.2.5 - Year 9 Genre Choices.

As with the first Year 3 and Year 5 students, the first high scoring Year 9 student based their arguments exclusively on special topics of deliberative discourse. One topic was used to argue each perspective: the first focusing on personal advantages toys and games bring to their users; and the second on alternate options that are more worthwhile in a moral sense. In this way, the first high scoring Year 9 student constructed a persuasive text that was closely aligned with the wording of the prompt.

Table 48. Year 9 Text 1 - Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) get you thinking, developing facets of knowledge and experience	You
Deliberative	Worthy	(Money) could go to poorer countries… allocated to things such as health and education	Charity/ Institu-tions
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) make you feel happy	You
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Video games) beneficial to your mental health	You
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) aren't just for fun, they can be constructive as well	You
Deliberative	Worthy	(Spending on alternatives) make a world of difference	Needy family
Deliberative	Worthy	give it to vital areas such as health and education	Institu-tions
Deliberative	Advantageous	(Toys) rewarding and mind building	Not specified
Deliberative	Worthy	more important things to worry about	Not specified

The first Year 9 text was unique in not explaining how spending money on toys and games would affect children. In fact, the student did not mention children in their text at all. Instead, they used pronouns such as *you*, *your* or *we*, to position the reader as directly enjoying the benefits brought by toys and games. By contrast, the other texts often positioned readers as adults or parents

who did not play with or personally enjoy the benefits of toys and games, and rather had to decide whether the benefits for their children justified such purchases. In support of spending money on toys and games, the Year 9 author argued this would get *you* thinking, developing facets of knowledge and experience, it would be fun and make *you* happy, give *your* brain a workout, be mind-building, be beneficial to *your* mental health, and reward *you*. Alternatively, they argued that investing money in vital areas such as health and education could lead to a better society, while using money to support poorer countries could make a world of difference to families in need.

The text followed the staging of the discussion genre. Its aim was not to persuade the reader to take action, but rather to present both sides of the issue and to discuss the validity of each side. After outlining the issue, the author argued for each perspective with a series of arguments, leading to a final judgement that both sides are legitimate and worthy of support.

Table 49. Year 9 Text 1 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Issue	as shown here, there are two sides to this debate
Argument 1 – First perspective	Toys and games can make you feel happy as well as give your brain a workout
Argument 1 – Second perspective	Donating to causes like this, instead of buying toys for yourself, could make a world of difference
Argument 2 – Second perspective	good way to spend your money is to give it to vital areas such as health and education
Judgement	Toys and games are rewarding and mind building, but there may be more important things to worry about

The second Year 9 text was more complex than the first in terms of the author's use of special topics from different forms of persuasive discourse. More in line with texts written by younger students, the author positioned readers in a parental role, asking them to consider how spending or not spending money on toys and games would advantage or disadvantage *your children* and *your family*. Each paragraph featured the use of multiple special topics, with some featuring topics from different forms of discourse. The author used the positive and negative sides of special topics to construct a one-sided argument in favour of spending money on toys and games.

Table 50. Year 9 Text 2 - Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics

Form of discourse	Topic	Focus	Instantiation	Affected
Deliberative	Advantageous	Having toys	(Toys) great for our knowledge, great for maintaining our physical health	Our/us
Deliberative	Worthy	Having toys	(Toys) keeping families together, and crucial for business	Families/ business
Deliberative	Advantageous	Playing board games	(Board games) major factors in educating	Children
Judicial	A question of quality	Motives	we cannot say that our children are spending too much money on education… not spending too much money on toys	N/A
Deliberative	Advantageous	Having toys	(Toys) major source of fun ways for exercising or maintaining health	We/us
Deliberative ALSO Judicial	Advantageous A question of quality	Having sport toys Motives	(Sports toys) great way to have fun while improving fitness so not too much money is spent on toys	Not specified N/A
Deliberative ALSO Deliberative	Worthy Advantageous	Playing board games Playing board games	(Board games) brings families closer (Playing board games) more likely to be happy and relaxed… less likely to argue	Families Everyone

Deliberative ALSO Deliberative	Disadvantage. Unworthy	Not playing board games Not playing board games	(No playing board games) arguing and constantly fighting with nothing to bring the family together? Not too much money is spent on toys	Families Families
Deliberative	Disadvantage.	Toy shop closing down	think of the sadness your child might have (if toy shops closed down)	Your child
Deliberative	Advantageous	Buying toys	(Buy toys for) the sake of your child's happiness	Your child
Deliberative	Advantageous	Having toys	(Toys are) educational, sporty	Not specified
Deliberative	Worthy	Buying toys	(Toys are) part of uniting families, and fantastic for businesses	Families/ business
Deliberative	Advantageous	Having toys	(Toys) create happiness for your children	Your children
Judicial	A question of quality	Motives	Therefore we can undoubtedly say… NOT too much money is spent on toys	N/A

As was the pattern in all high scoring texts, this text was largely deliberative, though featured the use of judicial topics at the ends of some paragraphs, and mixed topics within single arguments three times. The author

used deliberative discourse to persuade readers to purchase toys and games for their children, as this would bring educational benefits that could lead them to attain better careers. They argued that everyone benefits from toys and games because they provide opportunities for families to spend time together relaxing, and for people to have fun while exercising. Alternatively, it was argued that spending less money on toys and games would force toy shops to shut down, leading to upset children. Without the benefits of playing board games together, the author suggested families would argue and fight more often, while spending money on these things was highlighted as a worthy endeavour in keeping families close and strengthening businesses for a better society.

The author also based a number of arguments on judicial questions of quality, suggesting it is justifiable to spend money on toys and games that are educational, that allow you to have fun while improving fitness, that bring families together, that support businesses, and that make children happy. Such claims – based on the motives of such spending – were used by the author to end paragraphs after the advantageous and worthy arguments had been established. As found in the high scoring Year 7 texts, the second Year 9 author mixed special topics within the same arguments, doing so across and within forms of persuasive discourse.

This final student clearly created an analytical exposition: a one-sided text that argued in favour of the spending of money on toys and games, featuring numerous special topics from the positive and negative sides. Its aim

was not to persuade the reader to take action, but rather to prove why the prompt heading is incorrect.

Table 51. Year 9 Text 2 – Persuasive Genre Staging

Stage	Instantiation
Thesis	…here are several reasons why this statement is incorrect: toys and games are great for our knowledge, great for…
Argument 1	Board games… are all major factors in educating.
Argument 2	Toys and games are a major source of fun ways for exercising or maintaining health…
Argument 3	Keeping families close is another aspect of board games and toys which affect every family.
Argument 4	…think of the sadness your child might have because his favourite toy shop (e.g., Toy World) has been shut down?
Reinforcement of thesis	…toys and games are a major part of our lives and our children.

7.2.6 - Summary of Secondary Students' Persuasive Genre Choices.

Compared to the primary school texts, the older students made considerably different choices around the use of forms of discourse and special topics. The secondary school students were capable of drawing on topics from deliberative, judicial and epideictic discourse to persuade their readers in different ways. They often made arguments that mixed topics within and across forms of discourse, and varied the use of topics at key points in paragraphs to achieve specific rhetorical effects.

The first Year 7 student focused on the positive side of the deliberative topics, with their analytical exposition outlining advantages brought to children by toys and games. This was the first text to feature the use of multiple topics within single arguments, highlighting this as a valued feature of high scoring texts written by secondary school students. The second Year 7 student focused on the advantages and disadvantages of having and not having toys and games respectively. This analytical exposition featured the considered use of other special topics at key points in paragraphs to enhance the credibility of arguments and to position readers to negatively judge the virtues of parents who do not to buy toys for their children.

The discussion written by the first high scoring Year 9 student followed the prompt wording closely, focusing on the personal advantages brought by toys and games, while contrasting these with more worthwhile alternatives such as supporting the needy or investing in vital areas such as education or health. This text was notable for positioning readers as those directly benefiting from toys and games, rather than as parents whose children would benefit or be disadvantaged. The second Year 9 student wrote a more complex text overall in the structure of an analytical exposition. This text featured the use of multiple topics of deliberative and judicial discourse, often drawn on simultaneously to create complex arguments in the attempt to persuade readers.

7.2.7 - Summary of Genre Choices.

Table 52. Forms of Persuasive Discourse and Special Topics Overall

Text	Judicial Topics	Epideictic Topics	Deliberative Topics
Year 3 Text 1			• The advantageous • The worthy
Year 3 Text 2	A question of definition		• The advantageous/ disadvantageous • The unworthy
Year 5 Text 1	A question of definition		• The advantageous • The worthy/ unworthy
Year 5 Text 2			• The advantageous/ disadvantageous
Year 7 Text 1	A question of quality		• The worthy • The advantageous/ disadvantageous
Year 7 Text 2	A question of fact	Virtues and vices	• The advantageous/ disadvantageous • The unworthy
Year 9 Text 1			• The advantageous • The worthy
Year 9 Text 2	A question of quality		• The advantageous/ disadvantageous • The worthy/ unworthy

The analysis of high scoring students' persuasive genre choices resulted in the following summary findings:

- Aside from one Year 5 student who based arguments on the topic of the advantageous and the disadvantageous only, all high scoring students based arguments on more than one topic, often across forms of discourse.
- The high scoring students all based arguments on the personal advantages toys and games bring to their users. No student based arguments on the personal advantages of spending less money on toys and games, while five students based arguments on how spending less money on toys and games would disadvantage children and others.
- Five students based arguments on the topic of the worthy, with three suggesting there are more important things to spend money on than toys and games, and two describing the spending of money on toys and games as a worthy endeavour.
- Four students based arguments on the unworthy, with three implying it is wrong for parents to spend less money on toys and games for their children.
- Five students based arguments on topics of judicial discourse, with two posing questions of definition, two posing questions of quality, and one posing a question of fact. In all five cases, arguments based on

judicial topics were made in support of spending money on toys and games.

- Only one student based a single argument on epideictic discourse, highlighting this form of discourse and its topics as not particularly suited to addressing this prompt.
- Five students focused on past and future concerns around the issue, integrating judicial and deliberative arguments into their texts. Despite this, three students focused solely on deliberative arguments, emphasising a degree of flexibility around the use of other forms of discourse (so long as the text was largely deliberative).
- A commonality between the eight texts was their adherence to the three school-based persuasive genres, highlighting this as an important feature of high scoring texts written for the 2011 NAPLAN writing test.

7.3 - Analysis of ATTITUDE Choices

7.3.1 - Year 3 ATTITUDE Choices.

Following the analysis of students' genre choices, three analytical lenses were used to explore their language choices at the level of discourse, starting with an ATTITUDE analysis (Martin & White, 2005) (See Appendix 2 for full tables of ATTITUDE analysis). In the early childhood phase students use "mainly simple AFFECT" to appraise phenomena positively or negatively, while these choices become more complex in later phases (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). The

average age of Tasmanian Year 3 students who completed the NAPLAN test in 2011 was 8 years and 11 months, situating them between the early childhood phase (6-8 years old) and late childhood-early adolescence phase (9-11 years old). Their writing proficiency suggests their work would be indicative of the later phase. The analysis of high scoring Year 3 texts involved the separation of their attitudinal choices into the three subcategories of ATTITUDE.

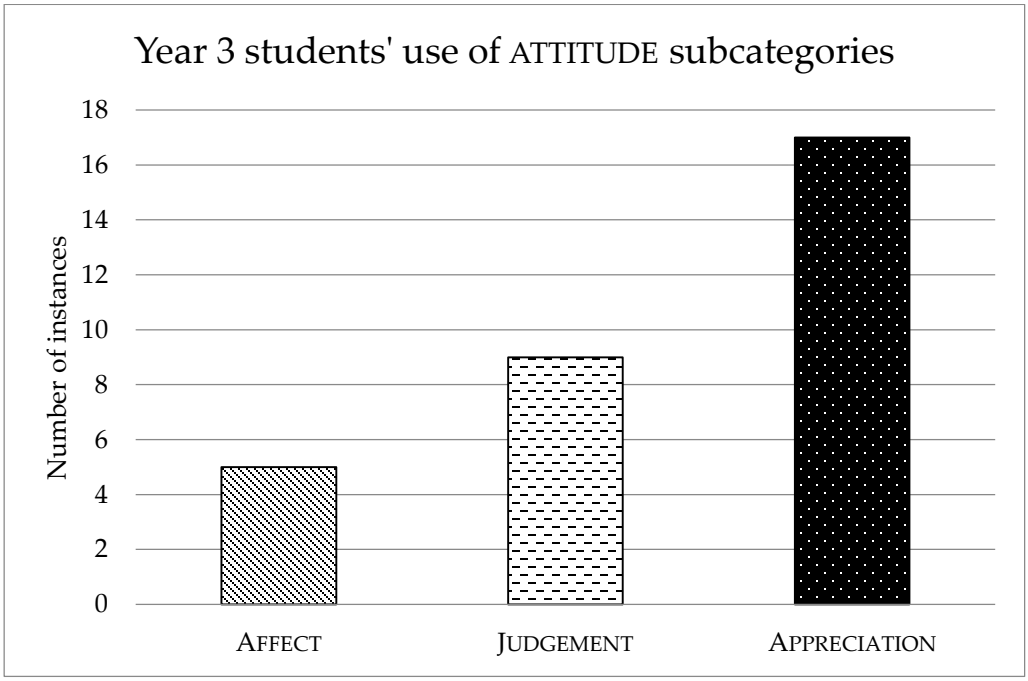

Figure 19 . Year 3 students' use of ATTITUDE subcategories.

The Year 3 texts featured 31 attitudinal meanings in total, with students using resources of APPRECIATION (n=17) more than three times as often as resources of AFFECT (n=5), and approximately twice as often as resources of JUDGEMENT (n=9). This greater focus on APPRECIATION can be attributed to the students' focus on evaluating the worth of toys and games. To understand more

about these students' evaluative language choices, the next level of delicacy for the ATTITUDE analysis was to unpack each subcategory into specific attitudinal resources.

7.3.1.1 - Year 3 ATTITUDE choices: Attitudinal resources.

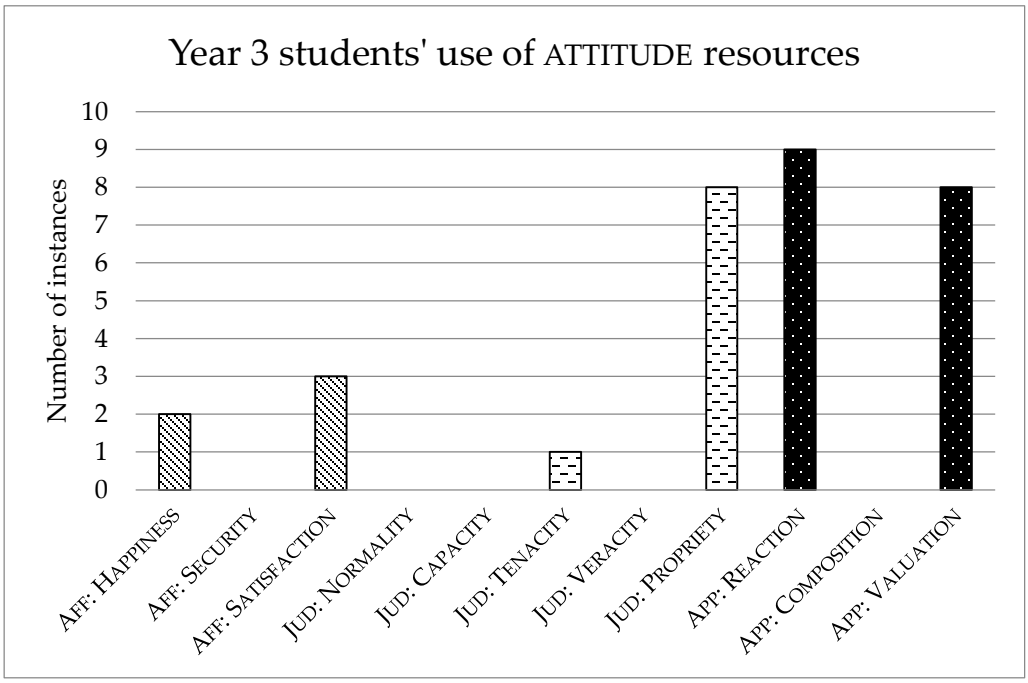

Figure 20. Year 3 students' use of ATTITUDE resources.

The above figure indicates that the APPRECIATION meanings in the high scoring Year 3 texts were made up by the REACTION (n=9) and VALUATION (n=8) resources. Such uses are highlighted in the following extracts from the texts:

Year 3 extracts: REACTION

Without toys and games the fun would be sucked out of the world and there would be no more entertainment[8]

Year 3 extracts: VALUATION

- Toys and games can be very helpful
- Lots of toys and games can be very educational
- . . . because of toys and games it's easier to have family time and develop social skills

The extract featuring REACTION suggested that the world would lack fun and entertainment without toys and games, while those featuring VALUATION presented toys and games as worthwhile or valuable possessions due to the benefits they bring to their users. Along with uses of JUDGEMENT: PROPRIETY (n=8), uses of REACTION and VALUATION such as these represented the most frequently used attitudinal resources by high scoring Year 3 students. These students also used two resources of AFFECT, with SATISFACTION (n=3) the most common, followed by HAPPINESS (n=2), though SECURITY was not used. SATISFACTION was often realised alongside resources of APPRECIATION to show how greater or lesser access to toys and games would impact feelings of

[8] Underlining added to emphasise the use of specific resources/devices

SATISFACTION. In the following extracts, a world without toys and games was presented as a place with little SATISFACTION – particularly for parents – which emphasised the value of these possessions.

Year 3 extracts: SATISFACTION

- . . . without them the children's parents would be so tired because they spent all day suggesting things for their kids to do
- Without them everyone would be hyperactive and very tired

The Year 3 students also used PROPRIETY (n=8) to implicitly or explicitly describe buying toys and games for children as a morally just thing for parents to do:

Year 3 extracts: PROPRIETY

. . . because of toys and games it's easier to have family time and develop social skills. Family time will let children create a much needed sense of belonging. Social skills will make sure children get along well and become very, very nice instead of mean

The consideration of individual resources highlighted how the Year 3 texts featured attitudinal meanings from the three subcategories. The next stage of the analysis was to consider whether ATTITUDE was used to positively or negatively evaluate phenomena.

7.3.1.2 - Year 3 ATTITUDE choices: Positive and negative evaluations.

As the students argued that too much money is not being spent on toys and games, it was predicted that their texts would contain more positive evaluations in order to explain the benefits toys and games bring to the people who use them. The Year 3 students' uses of positive and negative evaluations can be seen in the following figure:

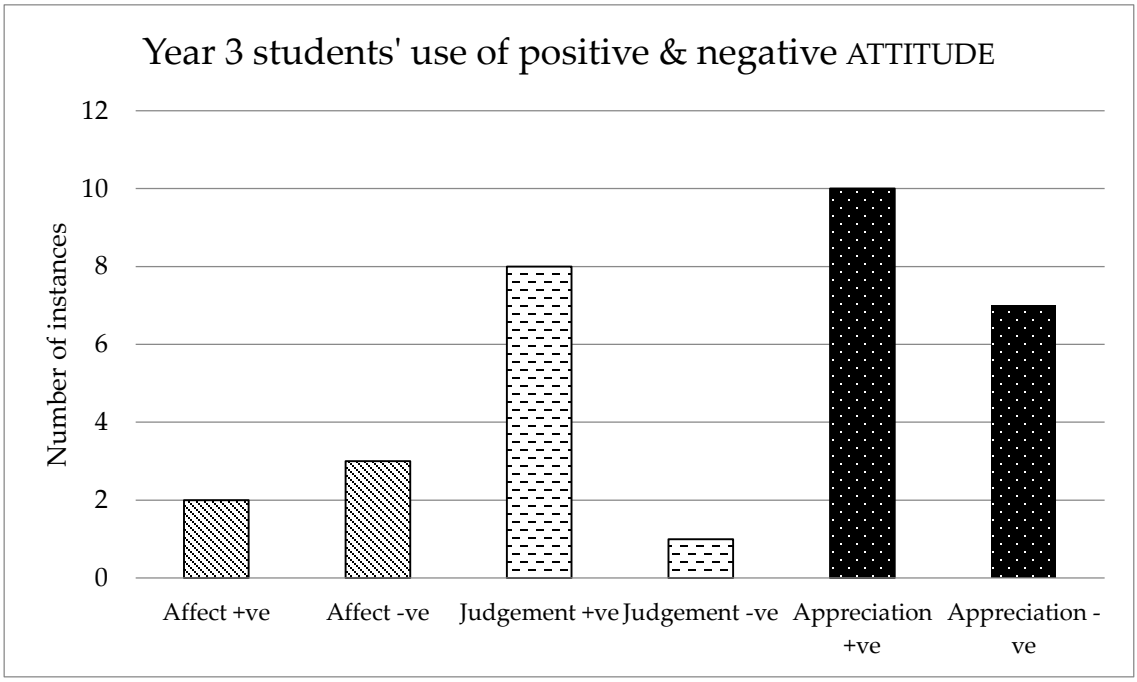

Figure 21. Year 3 students' use of positive and negative ATTITUDE.

The students used positive ATTITUDE (n=20) approximately twice as often as negative ATTITUDE (n=11). Almost all resources from the subcategory of JUDGEMENT were positive (n=8/9), while positive APPRECIATION (n=10) also outweighed negative APPRECIATION (n=7). Toys and games were always appraised positively, while negative APPRECIATION was used to describe the

REACTION to life in a miserable and desolate society. Regarding JUDGEMENT, students positively appraised people for spending money on toys and games, presenting this as the right thing to do in a moral sense. Unlike the other subcategories of ATTITUDE, a relatively even number of positive and negative AFFECT resources were used by the Year 3 students to communicate positive HAPPINESS (n=2) and negative SATISFACTION (n=3). While knowing how Year 3 students used specific attitudinal resources positively and negatively reveals much about their evaluation of phenomena in the attempt to persuade readers, a final stage involved considering whether they inscribed or invoked these meanings in their texts.

7.3.1.3 - Year 3 ATTITUDE choices: Inscribed and invoked meanings.

As discussed in the literature, little is known about how primary and secondary school students inscribe and invoke attitudinal meanings, yet research into persuasive texts written at the tertiary level (Derewianka, 2007; Hood, 2004a, 2006, 2010), as well as media texts (Holmgreen & Vestergaard, 2009; Richardson, 2007; Thomson & Fukai, 2008; White, 2006), suggests invocation plays a crucial role in how writers appraise phenomena subtly while appearing objective. As such, the high scoring texts were analysed for their use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

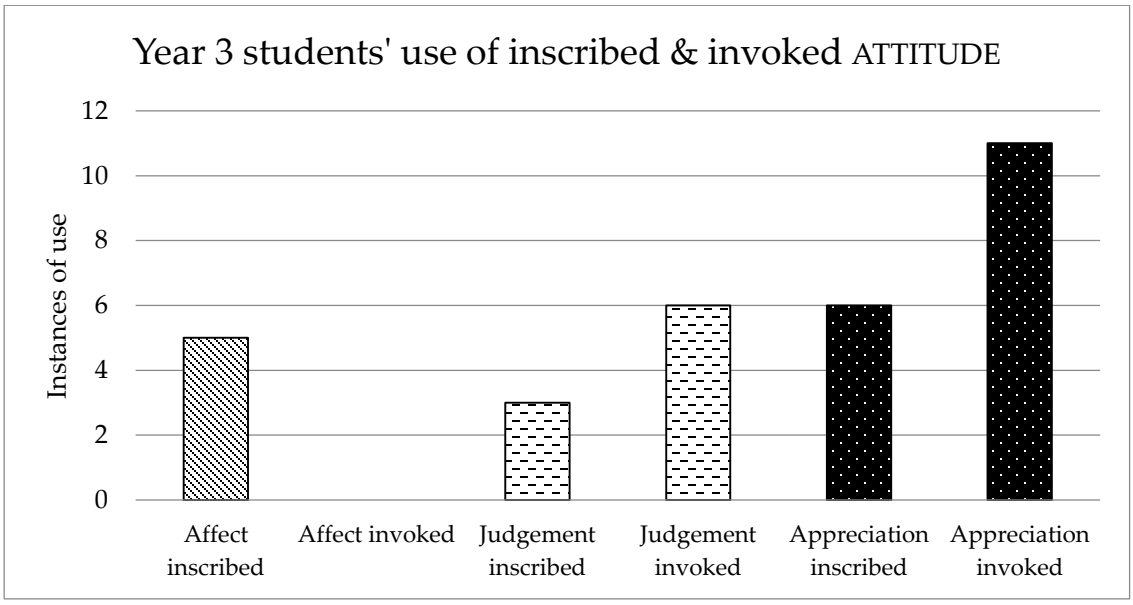

Figure 22. Year 3 students' use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

The analysis indicates that for the subcategories of JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION, high scoring Year 3 students inscribed ATTITUDE (n=14) less than they invoked it (n=17). Invocation most commonly occurred for the subcategory of APPRECIATION (n=11), with examples of this highlighted in the following extracts:

Year 3 extracts: Invoked APPRECIATION: VALUATION

- . . . because of toys and games it's easier to have family time and develop social skills
- Without them everyone would be hyperactive and very tired

In the first extract, the author stated benefits brought by toys and games, invoking a positive VALUATION of them. The second extract also invokes a positive VALUATION of toys and games, evaluating them as tools that allow you

to avoid hyperactivity or tiredness. In neither example did the author use explicit attitudinal lexis to label toys and games as valuable, yet these meanings are invoked through wordings that carry judgemental values within the Australian context (White, 2001). The Year 3 students also invoked JUDGEMENT twice as often as they inscribed it:

Year 3 extracts: Invoked JUDGEMENT: PROPRIETY

. . . buying toys and games can help support jobs and the economy

This example invokes positive PROPRIETY of people who buy toys and games, as this act would assist the society and workers. In the Australian context, it is deemed morally right to support people to keep their jobs, and as such there is a subtle evaluation present in the statement. Finally while the Year 3 students commonly invoked APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT meanings, their use of AFFECT resources was entirely inscribed:

Year 3 extracts: Inscribed AFFECT

- Children <u>like</u> toys and games
- Without them everyone would be <u>hyperactive</u> and <u>very tired</u>
- . . . parents could get <u>tired</u> without them

The first extract features inscribed positive HAPPINESS, as it explicitly states how children feel about toys and games. By contrast, the second and third examples feature inscribed negative SATISFACTION, as the reader is told how

everyone and *parents* would feel without these items. Yet despite the use of such AFFECT resources, the analysis revealed that even at the Year 3 level, high scoring students invoked attitudinal meanings more often than inscribing them, highlighting invocation as a crucial language choice made to positively or negatively evaluate phenomena.

7.3.1.4 - Summary of Year 3 ATTITUDE choices.

The high scoring Year 3 persuasive texts were awarded with high scores for their rich use of resources from the three attitudinal subcategories, most commonly REACTION, VALUATION, and PROPRIETY. These students tended to positively appraise toys and games and the people who purchase them. Their evaluations were invoked more readily than inscribed, as the meanings were realised without the use of explicit attitudinal lexis.

7.3.2 - Year 5 ATTITUDE Choices.

Following the analysis of Year 3 students' attitudinal choices, the choices made by high scoring Year 5 students were also unpacked. The average age of Tasmanian Year 5 students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN test was 10 years and 11 months, placing them in the middle of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) late childhood-early adolescence phase of writing development (9-12 years old). For writing by students in this phase, "attitudinal expression is more evident than in earlier years" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). Initially, the two Year 5 texts were broadly analysed to discover which attitudinal subcategories they favoured in their attempts to persuade readers.

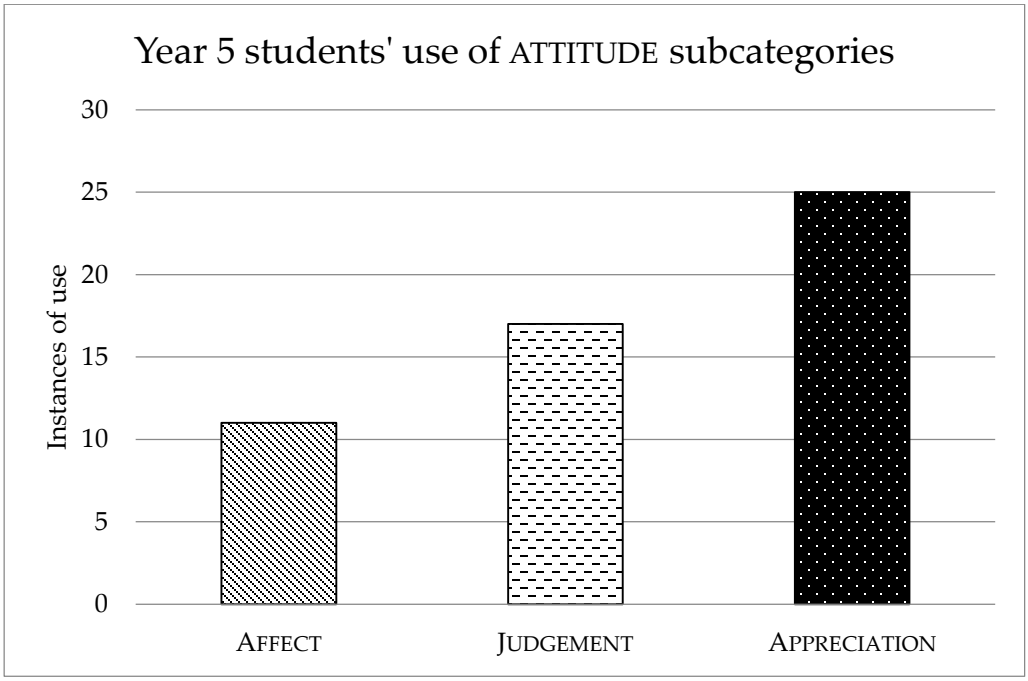

Figure 23. Year 5 students' use of ATTITUDE subcategories.

As with the Year 3 texts, the Year 5 texts most commonly featured resources of APPRECIATION (n=25) to evaluate toys and games. JUDGEMENT (n=17) and AFFECT (n=11) resources were used approximately twice as often by the Year 5 students as by the Year 3 students. In this way, a key difference between year levels was the increased frequency of resources from each subcategory in the older students' texts, though the overall pattern of use was similar, with evaluations of APPRECIATION the most common in all analysed primary school texts.

7.3.2.1 - Year 5 ATTITUDE choices: Attitudinal resources.

The next stage in the analysis was to consider the specific resources of ATTITUDE Year 5 students used in their persuasive texts. As APPRECIATION and

JUDGEMENT were the two subcategories with the highest instances of use, it was thought that VALUATION, REACTION and PROPRIETY would feature prominently, as they had in the Year 3 students.

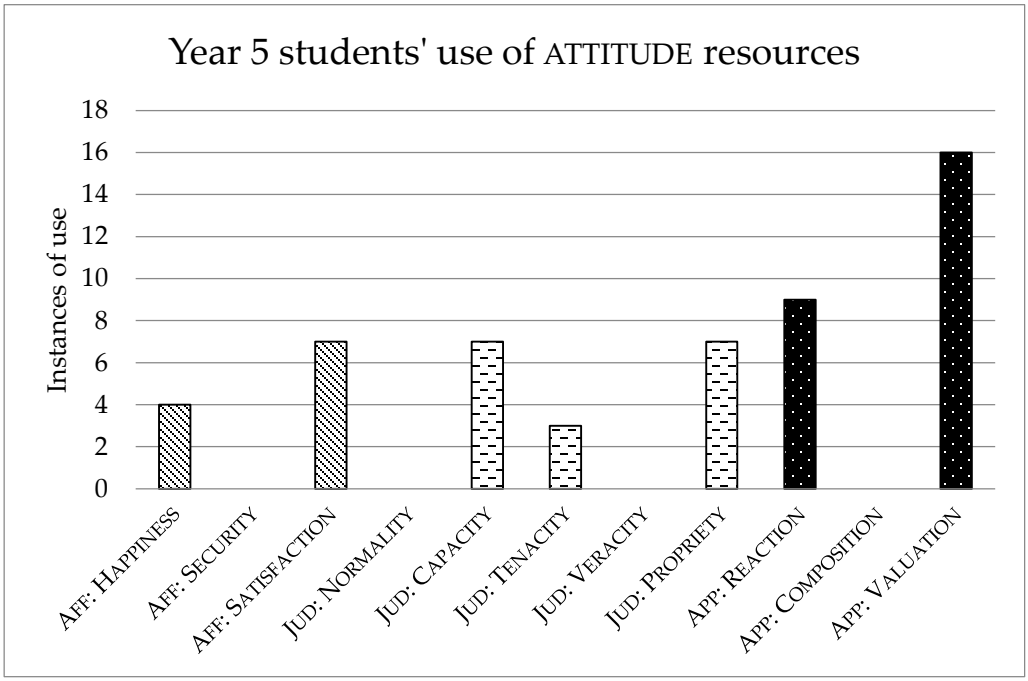

Figure 24. Year 5 students' use of ATTITUDE resources.

The Year 5 texts featured more VALUATION (n=16) than any other resource, with the students evaluating toys and games and the impact they have of people's lives. Examples of VALUATION used by the Year 5 students are evident in the following extracts:

Year 5 extracts: VALUATION

- Games and toys are an important part of life
- . . . some toys and games can help you learn
- They really are the best thing ever for you, me and everyone

While the Year 3 texts featured the REACTION (n=9), VALUATION (n=8) and PROPRIETY (n=8) most commonly, the Year 5 texts featured VALUATION (n=16), and REACTION (n=9) most commonly, followed by CAPACITY (n=7), SATISFACTION (n=7) and PROPRIETY (n=7).

Year 5 extracts: REACTION

I believe toys and games are great fun for anyone

Year 5 extracts: CAPACITY

Sports equipment is a type of toy. We use it to play games. Because of our movement, our fat burns into energy, so we become fit

Year 5 extracts: SATISFACTION

. . . go outside and play fetch with your dog/child/animal. You would be having fun while getting some exercise

Year 5 extracts: PROPRIETY

- . . . we are not wasting money with them but the money could go on for a better world
- . . . we are using money that could go on for the better

These extracts highlight how high scoring Year 5 students used REACTION, CAPACITY, SATISFACTION and PROPRIETY resources in their persuasive texts to evaluate a range of phenomena. The next stage was to analyse how these resources were used to positively or negatively evaluate phenomena.

7.3.2.2 - Year 5 ATTITUDE choices: Positive and negative evaluations.

After finding that high scoring Year 3 students used positive ATTITUDE three times more often than negative ATTITUDE, it was expected that the Year 5 students would also positively evaluate phenomena more readily.

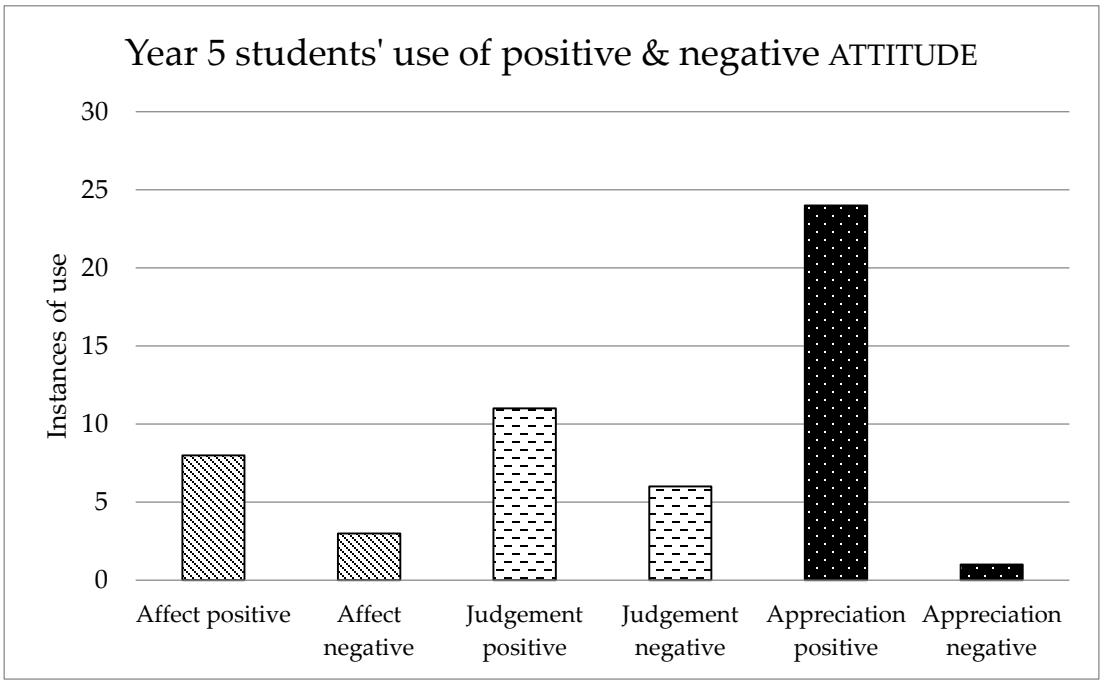

*Figure 25.*Year 5 students' use of positive and negative ATTITUDE.

The Year 5 students evaluated phenomena positively (n=43) over four times as often as they did so negatively (n=10). Positive APPRECIATION (n=24) heavily outweighed negative APPRECIATION (n=1), while positive JUDGEMENT (n=11) featured approximately twice as often as negative JUDGEMENT (n=6). Unlike the Year 3 students, the Year 5 students appraised AFFECT positively (n=8) more than twice as often as they did so negatively (n=3):

Year 5 extracts: Positive evaluations

> . . . some toys and games can help you learn (+ve VALUATION). For example, a kite is a toy, but when you fly it, it becomes much more (+ve VALUATION). A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind (+ve CAPACITY), but this makes us curious (+ve SATISFACTION), so we learn about cyclones (+ve CAPACITY) (which has something to do with wind), but this even makes us more curious (+ve SATISFACTION), so we learn about other natural disasters (+ve CAPACITY). It will make us go on and go on, learning (+ve VALUATION).

In this extract, the Year 5 student used a number of positive evaluations of JUDGEMENT: CAPACITY alongside APPRECIATION: VALUATION and AFFECT: SATISFACTION to argue that toys and games promote learning, making them valuable possessions. This paragraph makes visible how high scoring students were able to establish patterns of positive or negative evaluations, intensifying in this case the positive value of toys and games as possessions that can cause learning. The final stage in the analysis of Year 5 students' use of ATTITUDE resources was to consider inscribed and invoked meanings.

7.3.2.3 - Year 5 ATTITUDE choices: Inscribed and invoked meanings.

Research into invocation (e.g., Derewianka, 2007; Hood, 2004b, 2006, 2010; Thomson & Fukai, 2008) highlighted it as a technique that can used to subtly evaluate phenomena while appearing objective. As invocation played a

crucial role in the high scoring Year 3 students' arguments, it was important to discover if the Year 5 students also invoked attitudinal meanings in a similar way for rhetorical purposes.

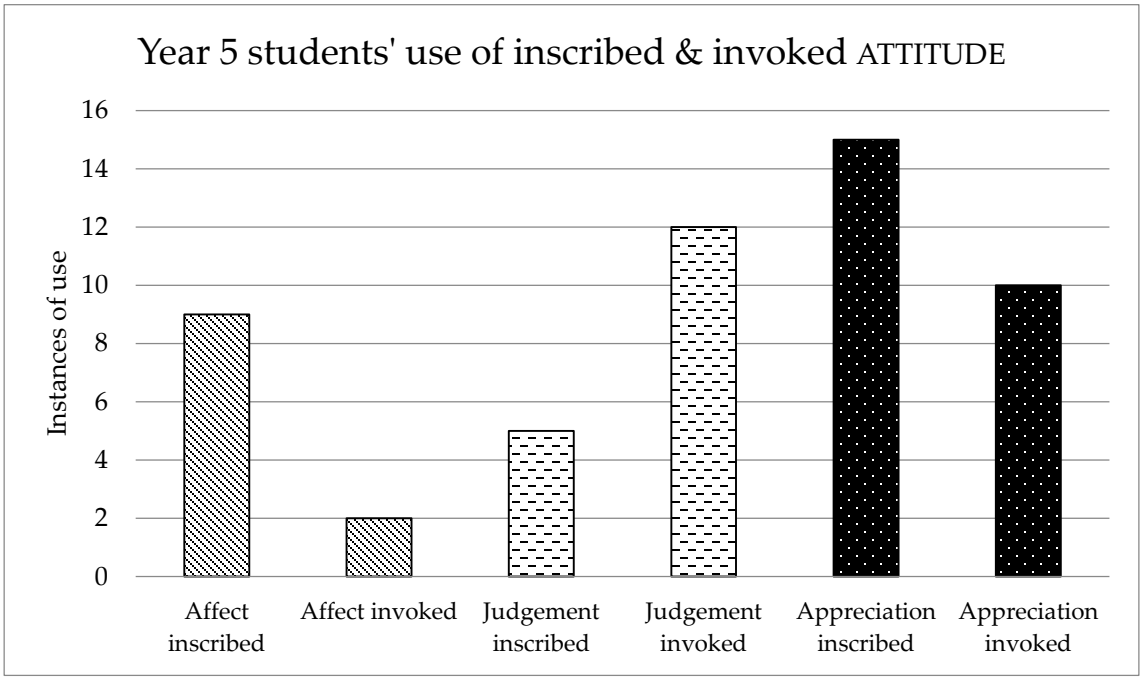

Figure 26. Year 5 students' use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

The analysis revealed that the Year 5 students readily invoked attitudinal meanings of JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION, though they more commonly inscribed evaluations of AFFECT and APPRECIATION. In total, they inscribed attitudinal meanings 29 times, and invoked them a comparable 24 times. Inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE in the Year 5 texts is highlighted in the following extract and table.

Year 5 extracts: Invoked CAPACITY and invoked VALUATION

> . . . some toys and games can help you learn. For example, a kite is a toy, but when you fly it, it becomes much more. A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind, but this makes us curious, so we learn about cyclones (which has something to do with wind), but this even makes us more curious, so we learn about other natural disasters. It will make us go on and go on, learning.

This short extract features three instances of invoked CAPACITY, two instances of invoked VALUATION, two instances of inscribed AFFECT, and one instance of inscribed VALUATION. The use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE in this extract is effective in revealing how these high scoring students created prosodies of positive or negative evaluations as they constructed their persuasive texts. The relevant section from the ATTITUDE analysis of this text can be seen as follows:

Table 53. Prosody of Positive Evaluation

Instantiation	AFFECT	JUDGEMENT	APPRECIATION	+/-	I/V	Appraised
can help you learn			VALUATION	+	I	Toys and games
becomes much more			VALUATION	+	V	it (a kite when flying)
will understand wind		CAPACITY		+	V	(People flying) a kite
makes us curious	SATISFAC.			+	I	this (our feelings when we understand wind)
learn about cyclones		CAPACITY		+	V	(People who are) curious
makes us more curious	SATISFAC.			+	I	this (our feelings when we learn about cyclones)
learn about natural disasters		CAPACITY		+	V	(People who are) more curious
will make us go on and go on learning			VALUATION	+	V	It (a kite)

The extract begins with an inscribed VALUATION of toys and games as things that are helpful. Next, the author used ideational meanings to provoke an attitudinal response with a specific toy – a kite – becoming *much more* when it is flying. Positive evaluations of CAPACITY are then afforded via the notion that flying a kite will allow a person to understand wind, and this increased CAPACITY leads to the use of positive inscribed AFFECT, with the person feeling curious. This then leads to a further positive evaluation of CAPACITY, afforded via the notion that the curiousness leads to further learning about a more complex issue: cyclones. This greater CAPACITY of understanding leads to the positive inscription of AFFECT, with more curious feelings, driving the person to learn about the more complex notion of natural disasters, and in doing so inscribed a further positive evaluation of CAPACITY. The cycle then ceases as the author reinforces the initial positive VALUATION of the kite, as the thing that allowed this CAPACITY building to occur initially.

As described by Martin and White (2005), what happens here is a prosodic pattern of positive evaluations, where "[i]nscribed ATTITUDE launches and subsequently reinforces a prosody which directs readers in their evaluation of non-attitudinal ideational material under its scope (p. 64). So while there are more uses of invoked ATTITUDE than inscribed ATTITUDE, the reader is positioned by the inscribed meanings to interpret these invoked meanings as positive too.

Overall, the Year 5 students invoked attitudinal meanings less than they inscribed them, though the relatively comparable frequencies again emphasises

the important role of invocation in high scoring primary school students' persuasive texts.

7.3.2.3 - Summary of Year 5 ATTITUDE choices.

A number of patterns can be drawn between the high scoring Year 3 and Year 5 texts regarding their use of attitudinal resources to persuade others. The primary school persuasive texts featured more resources of APPRECIATION than either of the other attitudinal subcategories. The Year 5 students most commonly used VALUATION (n=16) and REACTION (n=9), followed by CAPACITY (n=7), PROPRIETY (n=7) and SATISFACTION (n=7) to evaluate toys and games, and the people who spend their money on them. Students in Year 5 favoured positive evaluations (n=43) over negative evaluations (n=10), and inscribed meanings (n=29) more readily than they invoked meanings (n=24), though invocation still played an important role in more subtly evaluating phenomena and allowing the author to appear more objective.

7.3.3 - Year 7 ATTITUDE Choices.

The gap between Year 5 and Year 7 is significant in representing the transition from primary to secondary education in many Australia schools. The average Tasmanian Year 7 student who completed test was 12 years and 11 months old at the time of the 2011 NAPLAN test, situating them on the cusp of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) mid-adolescence phase of writing development (13-15 years old). While still technically part of the late childhood-early adolescence phase in terms of age, their scores on the test suggest their

work is more indicative of the mid-adolescence phase. Students in this third phase of development can be expected to use "an extensive range of lexis to express attitude," which they use "selectively" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). As with the other year levels, the analysis of selected Year 7 texts began with the categorisation of their realised attitudinal meanings into the three ATTITUDE subcategories.

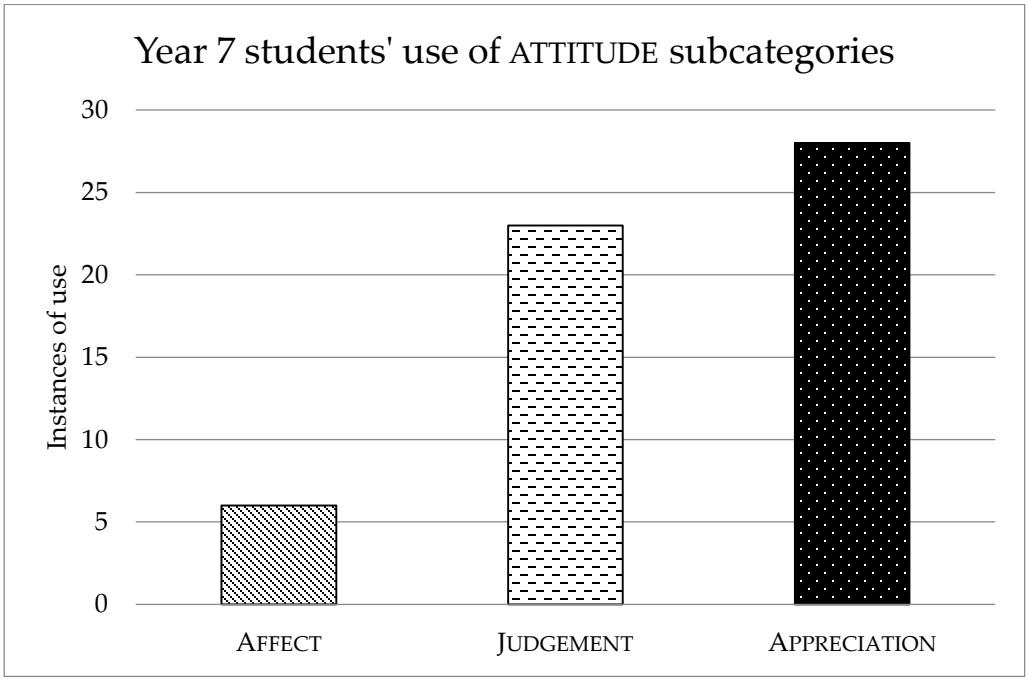

*Figure 27.*Year 7 students' use of ATTITUDE subcategories.

The high scoring Year 7 students used resources from the APPRECIATION subcategory (n=28) more than those from the JUDGEMENT (n=23) and AFFECT (n=6) subcategories. The gap between their use of APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT resources was less apparent than the gap at both younger year levels, however

the Year 7 students only used a comparable amount of AFFECT resources (n=6) as the Year 3 students, at around half the amount used by Year 5 students (n=11).

7.3.3.1 - Year 7 ATTITUDE choices: Attitudinal resources.

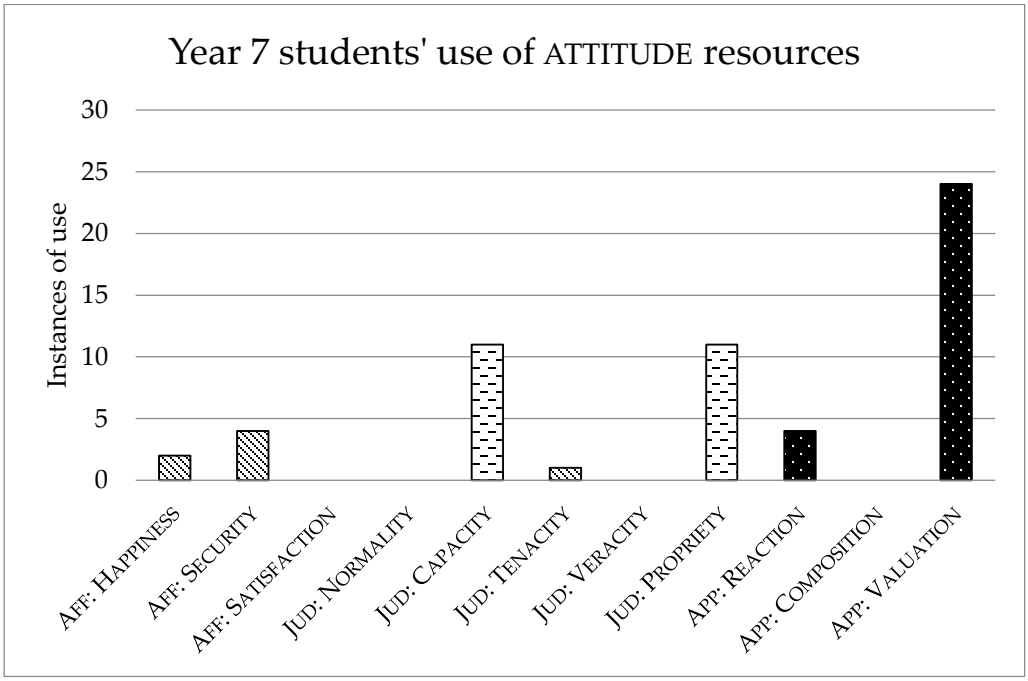

Figure 28. Year 7 students' use of ATTITUDE resources

Compared to the 53 attitudinal resources that featured in the Year 5 texts, the Year 7 texts featured 57. VALUATION (n= 24) was the most prominent resource used to argue against the prompt wording, followed by their relatively high uses of CAPACITY (n=11) and PROPRIETY (n=11). The students predominantly used VALUATION and CAPACITY to highlight how toys and games are valuable in developing aspects of human life:

Year 7 extracts: VALUATION

- . . . there are many toys for sale that help children to develop cognitive and motor skills
- . . . toys help to educate, develop and enrich the lives of children
- Games and toys have been proven to improve happiness, to be educational and to also let a child be active and physical

Year 7 extracts: CAPACITY

- If a baby isn't given games and toys when it is still young, their brain will develop much slower . . . Without educational toys, it has been scientifically proven for the child to have mental problems when they reach adulthood!
- Not letting a kid access such sporting toys will make them lazy, unhealthy and inactive
- Recent studies have shown that children with sporting toys will be 75% healthier than someone without

PROPRIETY was also used commonly in the Year 7 texts to highlight the giving of toys to children as the right thing to do, as it develops them in multiple ways, and not doing so has a number of negative consequences. Such a use of PROPRIETY from a Year 7 text can be seen in the following extract:

Year 7 extracts: PROPRIETY

- Not letting children have toys is encouraging and basically asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom. Is that how you want your child to turn out?
- Not giving children toys is mean, cruel and just plain unfair!

In both cases, the writer judged behaviour under the heading of *social sanction*, with the first example invoked, and the second example inscribed (Martin & White, 2005). According to Martin and White (2005), "sharing values in this area underpins civic duty" as the student outlined an unfair action, and in doing so, implied what would be more fair (i.e., spending money on toys and games). The next stage of the analysis was to consider whether the Year 7 students positively or negatively evaluated these phenomena.

7.3.3.2 - Year 7 ATTITUDE choices: Positive and negative evaluations.

The Year 3 students made approximately twice the number of positive evaluations as negative evaluations, and this gap increased with Year 5 students making more than four times the number of positive evaluations, so it was expected that Year 7 students would continue this trend. While the Year 3 students made more negative evaluations of AFFECT than positive evaluations, the Year 5 students reversed this trend with more than twice the number of positive evaluations of AFFECT. To find out how the Year 7 students dealt with

positive and negative AFFECT, the attitudinal meanings realised in the selected Year 7 texts were separated into positive or negative meanings.

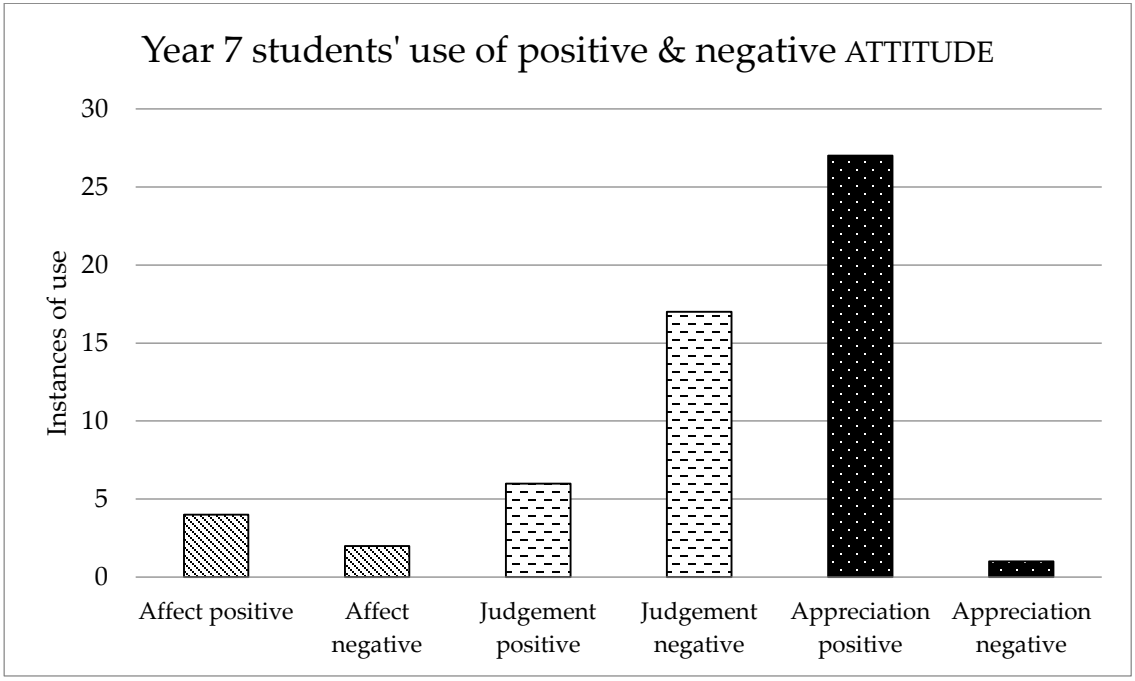

Figure 29. Year 7 students' use of positive and negative ATTITUDE.

Similar to the Year 5 students, the Year 7 students used positive evaluations of AFFECT (n=4) and APPRECIATION (n=27) more frequently than negative evaluations using resources in these subcategories. The patterns of use were very similar, with around twice the instances of positive AFFECT, and almost exclusively positive APPRECIATION in their texts, yet the main difference between the Year 5 and Year 7 texts overall was in their use of positive and negative JUDGEMENT. While the Year 5 students positively judged people who buy toys and games as helping to develop their children and keeping people working, the Year 7 students negatively judged people who do not buy toys and

games for the harm this causes to children. In both cases, toys and games were positively appraised, though the focus on effects of having or not having these items altered how the high scoring students used JUDGEMENT, with Year 5 students favouring positive evaluations, and Year 7 students favouring negative evaluations.

Year 7 extracts: Positive ATTITUDE

- I believe that there are many reasons that toys are <u>good and deserve to have money spent on them</u>
- Many toys have things such as handles, buttons and levers that <u>help children to understand and wonder how things work</u>. As children grow, wondering and understanding <u>allows them to explore the world they live in</u>

In the first extract, the author used inscribed REACTION to evaluate toys and games positively, explicitly labelling them as *good,* while they simultaneously invoked positive PROPRIETY via the implication that it is right to spend money on toys, stating they *deserve* this. By contrast, the second example invokes a positive VALUATION of many toys as things that help children to understand and wonder how things work, and subsequently invokes positive CAPACITY by suggesting that the act of wondering and understanding allows children to explore the world. Positive evaluations of AFFECT and APPRECIATION were common throughout the Year 7 texts.

The Year 7 texts also featured many negative JUDGEMENTS of human behaviours or characteristics:

Year 7 extracts: Negative JUDGEMENT

- Not letting a kid access such sporting toys will make them lazy, unhealthy and inactive
- Not letting children have toys is encouraging and basically asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom. Is this how you really want your child to turn out?
- Not giving children toys is mean, cruel and just plan unfair!

These extracts feature negative PROPRIETY, as parents who do not let their children have toys are labelled as mean, cruel and unfair for causing different harms. The first and second extracts also feature negative CAPACITY, as children who do not have access to these toys are labelled unhealthy and overweight, amongst other things. While such JUDGEMENTS represented powerful negative evaluations in their texts, the Year 7 students focused most attention overall on evaluating a range of phenomena positively, whether they wrote an exposition or a discussion.

7.3.3.3 - Year 7 ATTITUDE choices: Inscribed and invoked meanings.

The analysis found that invocation played an important role in the high scoring primary school texts. As the Year 5 students inscribed (n=29) and

invoked (n=24) a comparable amount of attitudinal meanings, it was important to consider whether the Year 7 students would make similar evaluative choices.

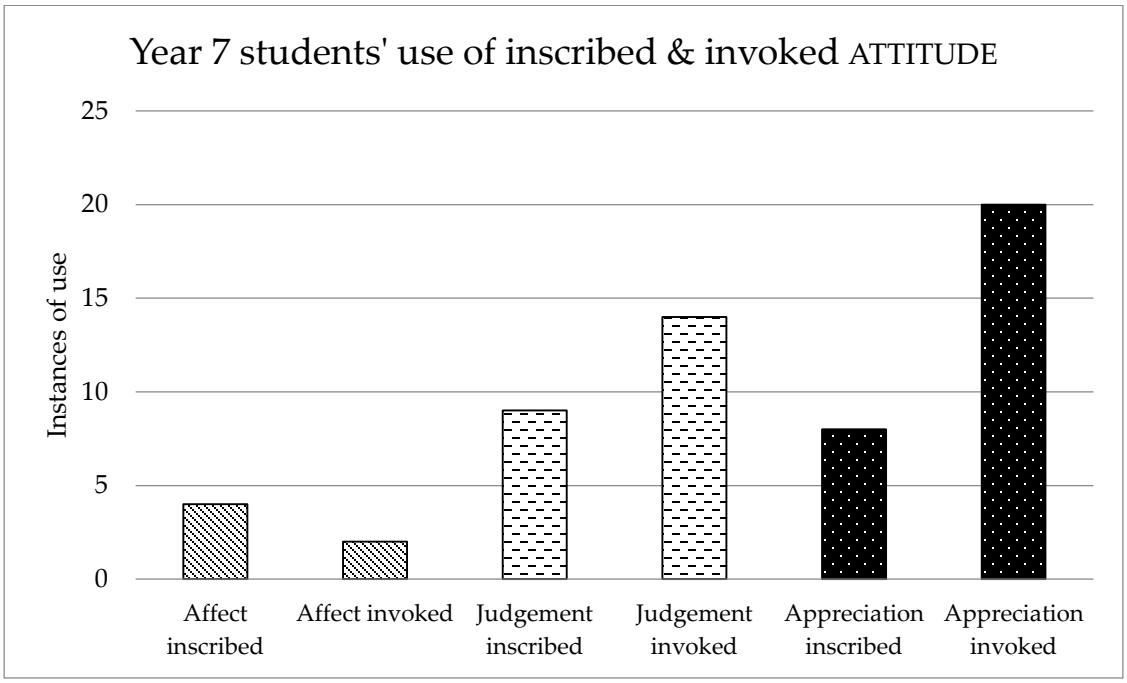

Figure 30. Year 7 students' use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

The analysis revealed that Year 7 students invoked attitudinal meanings (n=36) more than they inscribed them (n=21). In this way, the Year 7 students inscribed less attitudinal meanings than the Year 5 students, while they invoked considerably more meanings. Students in Year 3, Year 5 and Year 7 all inscribed AFFECT more than they invoked AFFECT, while they invoked JUDGEMENT more than they inscribed it. The Year 3 and Year 7 students invoked APPRECIATION more than they inscribed it, while the Year 5 students did the opposite. The following extracts provide evidence of the Year 7 students' use of invocation:

Year 7 extracts: Invoked VALUATION and CAPACITY

The abilities that these toys help form are vitally important. Without motor and cognitive skills it would be very hard to live a normal life.

This extract involves ideational wordings that invoke a positive VALUATION of toys and games as things that allow people to develop important abilities. Negative CAPACITY is then invoked regarding people who do not possess these abilities, which serves to emphasise once more the value of toys and games. The same general pattern was found with their uses of APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT, with more invocations than inscriptions.

Year 7 extracts: Invoked JUDGEMENT

Not letting children have toys is encouraging and basically asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom. Is that how you really want your child to turn out?

While this extract inscribed negative CAPACITY in terms of children being overweight and mentally unstable, it also invoked negative CAPACITY in terms of them being behind in the classroom, and invoked negative PROPRIETY in parents who allow their children to develop such negative characteristics. Neither of the invoked meanings involved the use of explicit attitudinal lexis (such as *daft* or *irresponsible*). In total, 36 of the Year 7 students' 57 attitudinal meanings were invoked in this way.

7.3.3.4 - Summary of Year 7 ATTITUDE choices.

The most prominent resources in the Year 5 texts, such as VALUATION, PROPRIETY and CAPACITY, became even more prominent in the Year 7 texts, in addition to SECURITY which did not feature in the Year 5 texts at all. Alternatively, the use of other resources became less evident in the Year 7 texts, including HAPPINESS, SATISFACTION, REACTION and TENACITY. The Year 7 students used positive evaluations of AFFECT and APPRECIATION more than negative evaluations of resources in these subcategories, yet focused not on positive JUDGEMENTS of those who have and buy toys, but on negative JUDGEMENTS of those who do not have or buy them. Despite this, negative evaluations (n=20) were still considerably outnumbered by positive evaluations (n=37). The Year 7 students also invoked JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION considerably more than they inscribed meanings in these subcategories. Alternatively, their inscriptions of AFFECT slightly outweighed their invocations, following the same pattern established in the Year 3 and Year 5 texts. There was a marked decrease in the instances of inscribed APPRECIATION by Year 7 students, with it reduced to a similar level seen in the Year 3 texts, at roughly half the number in the Year 5 texts. With this in mind, the Year 7 students spent more time invoking APPRECIATION meanings, approximately doubling the amount of invoked APPRECIATION in the primary school texts.

7.3.4 - Year 9 ATTITUDE Choices.

At the time of the NAPLAN test, the average Tasmanian Year 9 student was 14 years and 10 months old, placing them at the upper end of Christie and Derewianka's (2008) mid-adolescence phase (12-15 years old) and approaching the late adolescence phase (16-18 years old +). While their descriptions of young people's persuasive writing choices focused on texts written by students in the late adolescence phase, Christie and Derewianka (2008) did unpack one persuasive text written by a student at the mid-adolescence level. The writer of this exposition used positive JUDGEMENT when expressing their initial value position (i.e., the thesis), and then used the subsequent text to provide evidence for their claim. This student's use of "JUDGEMENTS [were] all very positive, reflecting a high degree of social esteem" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 136). Yet while this example was described as an effective persuasive text, Christie and Derewianka (2008) suggested there was "still room for development in terms of the adoption of a more dispassionate stance and a willingness to critique and problematize the issue" (p. 138).

The Year 9 texts featured in this study are no different, with each recognised as demonstrating the use of language skills that were valued by markers.

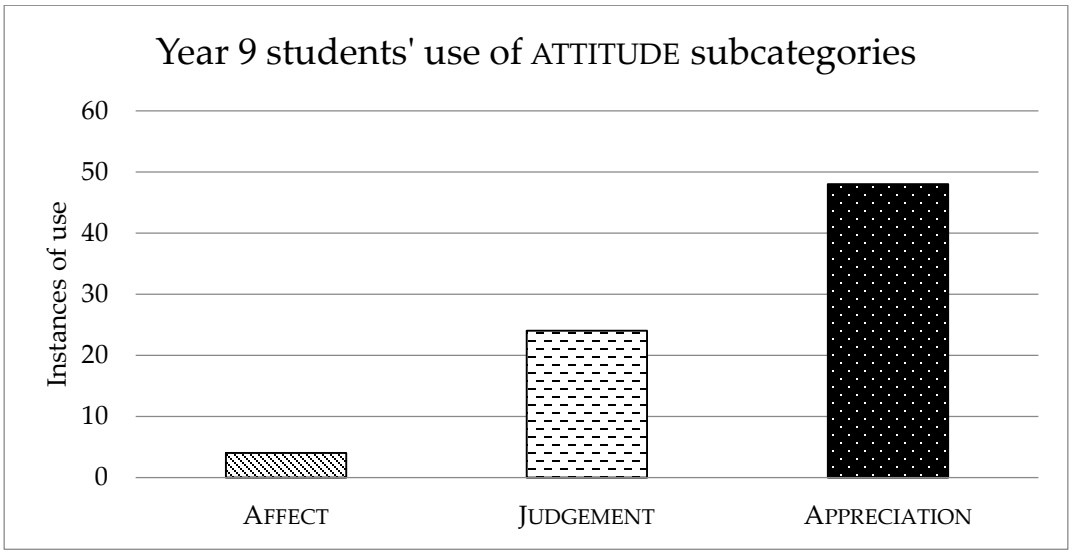

Figure 31. Year 9 students' use of ATTITUDE subcategories.

The analysis found the Year 9 students used resources of APPRECIATION most commonly (n=48), followed by exactly half the number of JUDGEMENT resources (n=24), yet almost no resources of AFFECT (n=4). To reveal more, the Year 9 students' use of specific attitudinal resources was then considered.

7.3.4.1 - Year 9 ATTITUDE choices: Attitudinal resources.

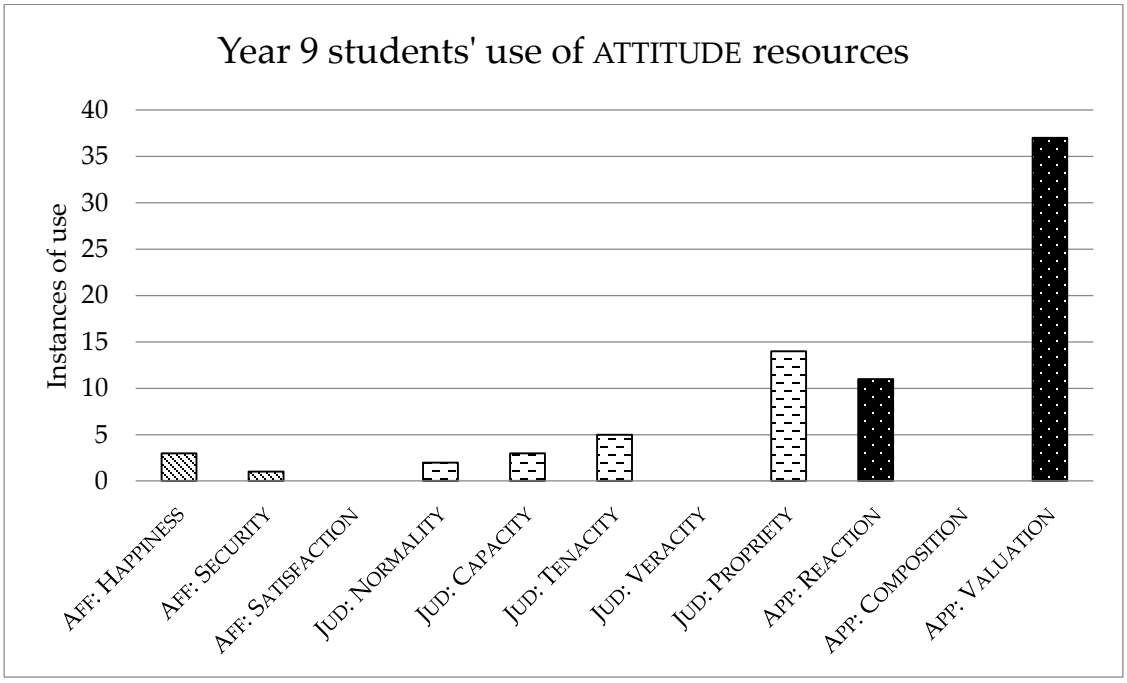

Figure 32. Year 9 students' use of ATTITUDE resources.

Following the trend set by the younger students, the Year 9 students used VALUATION (n=37), PROPRIETY (n=14) and REACTION (n=11) most commonly, however the frequency of CAPACITY was notably less pronounced than it had been in the Year 5 and Year 7 texts. Examples of the three highest frequency resources in Year 9 extracts are as follows:

Year 9 extracts: VALUATION

- Toys and games can offer wonderful things to their buyers
- . . . toys and games are great for our knowledge, great for maintaining our physical health, brilliant for keeping families together, and crucial for business in toy departments around the world

Year 9 extracts: PROPRIETY

- While there are good reasons for toys and games, money could be spent on "more important" things. The excessive amount of money we spend on games could go to poorer countries or even allocated to things such as health and education
- For the sake of your child's happiness, spend money on toys and games to keep these shops alive

The Year 9 students often contrasted positive REACTION with positive or negative VALUATION:

Year 9 extracts: reaction and valuation

- . . . games aren't just for fun, they can be constructive as well
- Toys may be fun, but education is vital

In this way, the students positioned readers to evaluate the positive REACTION that toys and games are fun as less meaningful or important than the positive or negative VALUATIONS of games being constructive, or education being vital. While the Year 9 texts featured eight of the 11 attitudinal resources at least once, VALUATION, PROPRIETY and REACTION accounted for the vast majority (n=62) of meanings realised (n=76).

7.3.4.2 - Year 9 ATTITUDE choices: Positive and negative evaluations.

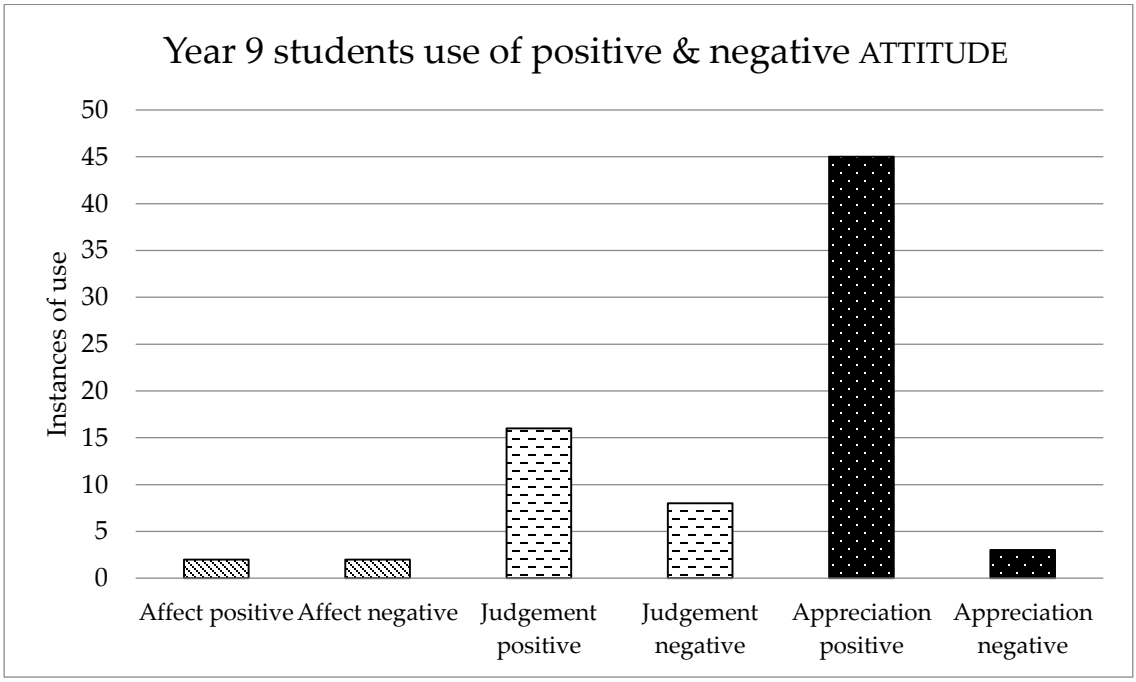

Figure 33. Year 9 students' use of positive and negative ATTITUDE.

The Year 9 students used the same low number of AFFECT resources positively and negatively (n=2), though they positively evaluated JUDGEMENT (n=16) twice as often as they did negatively (n=8), and positively evaluated APPRECIATION (n=45) almost exclusively.

Year 9 extracts: Positive ATTITUDE

- Toys and games are excellent stimulants for the brain; they get you thinking, developing facets of knowledge and experience
- . . . toys and games are great for our knowledge, great for maintaining our physical health, brilliant for keeping families together, and crucial for business in toys departments around the world

Year 9 extracts: Negative ATTITUDE

. . . think of the sadness your child might have because his favourite toy shop (e.g., Toy World) has been shut down?

In the first extract above, the author evaluated toys and games as excellent stimulants for the brain that allow for the development of thinking skills. This invoked a positive VALUATION of toys and games for causing this development. The second example is similar, as toys and games were described as great, brilliant and crucial at helping us achieve a number of culturally significant activities, which in turn invoked a positive VALUATION of them. The example of negative ATTITUDE inscribed negative HAPPINESS as children's feelings of sadness were caused by their favourite toyshops shutting down. Such negative evaluations were less common than positive evaluations in the Year 9 texts overall, as students focused more on positively evaluating toys and games, and the people who buy or use them. The final stage of the ATTITUDE analysis was to consider whether these evaluative meanings were inscribed or invoked by the Year 9 students.

7.3.4.3 - Year 9 ATTITUDE choices: Inscribed and invoked meanings.

As discussed above, the Year 7 students inscribed meanings less often than the younger Year 5 students, while they effectively doubled the Year 5 students' use of invoked meanings. All prior year levels inscribed AFFECT more than they invoked it, and conversely invoked JUDGEMENT more than they

inscribed it, however their inscription or invocation of APPRECIATION varied with the year level.

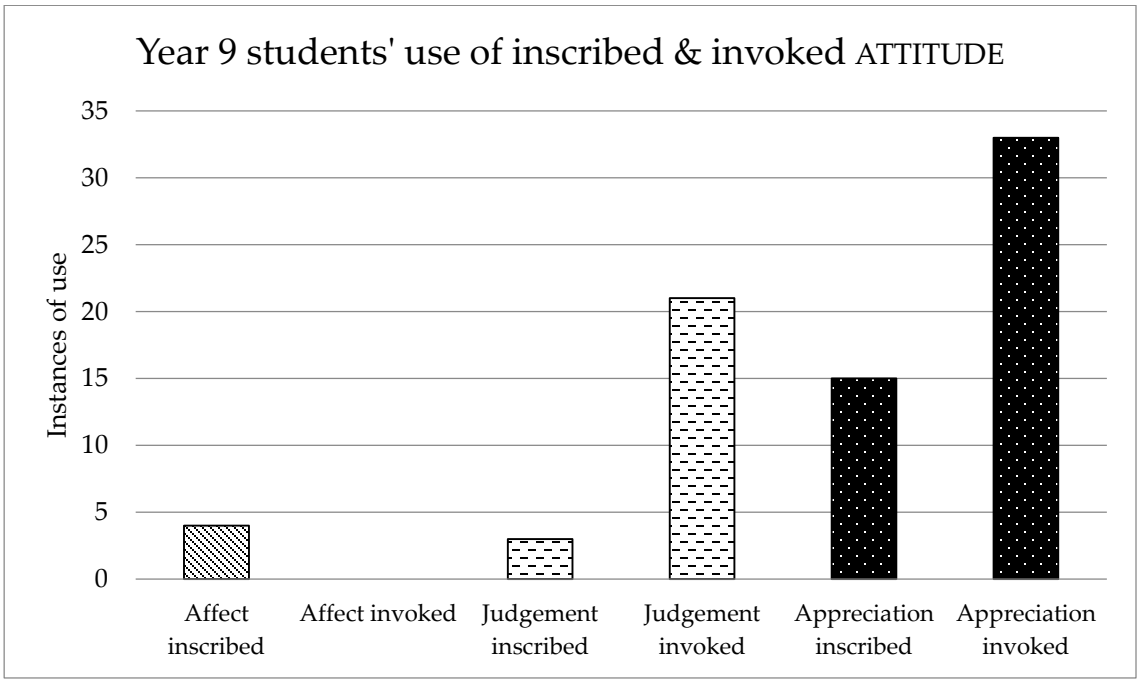

Figure 34. Year 9 students' use of inscribed and invoked ATTITUDE.

The general pattern in the use of inscription and invocation by Year 3 and Year 7 students remained evident in the Year 9 texts, with the favouring of inscribed AFFECT, invoked JUDGEMENT, and invoked APPRECIATION. The Year 9 students inscribed AFFECT (n=4) exclusively, and invoked APPRECIATION (n= 33) more than twice as often as they inscribed it (n=15). The greatest gap was between the use of inscribed and invoked JUDGEMENT, with the Year 9 students invoking virtually all their positive and negative JUDGEMENTS (n=21). This almost exclusive reliance on invoked JUDGEMENT was a key feature

distinguishing Year 9 texts from all other year levels. Examples of invoked meanings from the Year 9 texts are provided below:

Year 9 extracts: Invoked JUDGEMENT

Donating to causes such as this, instead of buying toys for yourself, could make a world of difference to a family who needs the money much more than you do

Year 9 extracts: Invoked APPRECIATION

. . . education will set you up for life. It can give you a job, therefore a source of income and a way of life

The first extract invoked positive PROPRIETY as it implied a positive JUDGEMENT of people who donate their money to families in need, rather than buying toys. The second extract invoked a positive VALUATION of education, as it suggests this will lead to culturally important outcomes, such as having a job, a source of income and a way of life. Although it does not feature the use of explicit attitudinal lexis to describe education as valuable or important, this meaning is invoked by the cultural significance of what education is said to lead to. While the Year 9 students inscribed ATTITUDE on 22 occasions, they invoked ATTITUDE on 54 occasions, highlighting the crucial role played by invocation in the older students' texts.

7.3.4.4 - Summary of Year 9 ATTITUDE choices.

Keeping with the trend established by the younger students, Year 9 students most commonly evaluated phenomena with resources from the APPRECIATION subcategory (n=48), followed by the JUDGEMENT subcategory (n=24), and lastly the AFFECT subcategory (n=4). Regarding AFFECT, the Year 9 students inscribed HAPPINESS a small number of times (n=3) and inscribed SECURITY on one occasion, though did not use SATISFACTION at all. They favoured VALUATION (n=37) and REACTION (n=11) from the APPRECIATION subcategory, and PROPRIETY (n=14) from JUDGEMENT. The Year 9 students relied heavily on positive evaluations, with a greater frequency of positive JUDGEMENT (n=16) and APPRECIATION (n=45) meanings in the texts. While similar patterns could be found across the year levels with most aspects of the analysis, the Year 9 texts were unique in featuring a greater proportion of invoked judgement than their younger counterparts. The Year 9 texts also featured the greatest repertoire of attitudinal meanings (8/11), though only four resources were used on five or more occasions. The following figures and tables depict the use of attitudinal resources across the four year levels.

7.3.5 - ATTITUDE Choices Overall.

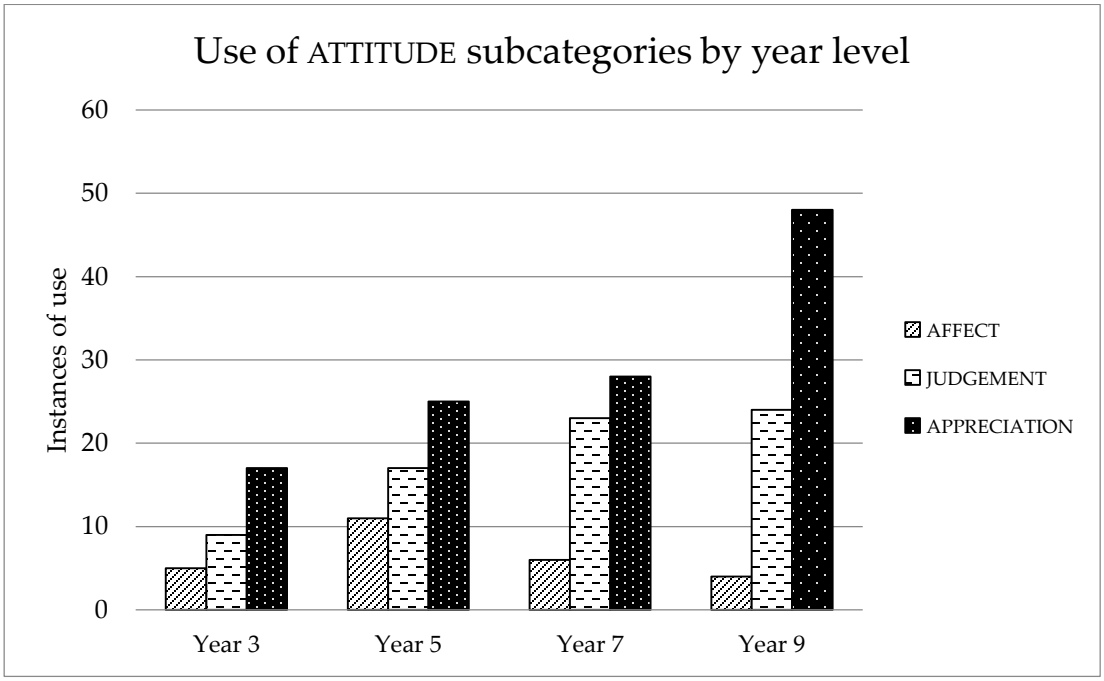

Figure 35. Use of ATTITUDE subcategories by year level.

The use of AFFECT more than doubled between Year 3 (n=5), and Year 5 (n=11), then almost halved to Year 7 (n=6), and continued declining at the Year 9 level (n=4). This suggests that AFFECT played a larger role in the primary school texts, as students more commonly explained children's feelings about toys and games generally, and how parents and children would feel if they lived in a world without these items. Rather than evaluating the feelings of people, secondary school students more commonly evaluated toys and games directly through APPRECIATION. The use of JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION increased with subsequent year levels, showing these as the two most important subcategories for high scoring texts written in response to the 2011 NAPLAN prompt. In total,

these texts featured approximately three times more JUDGEMENT resources (n=73) than AFFECT resources (n=26), and over four times more APPRECIATION resources (n=118) than AFFECT resources (n=26).

7.3.5.1 - ATTITUDE choices overall: Attitudinal resources.

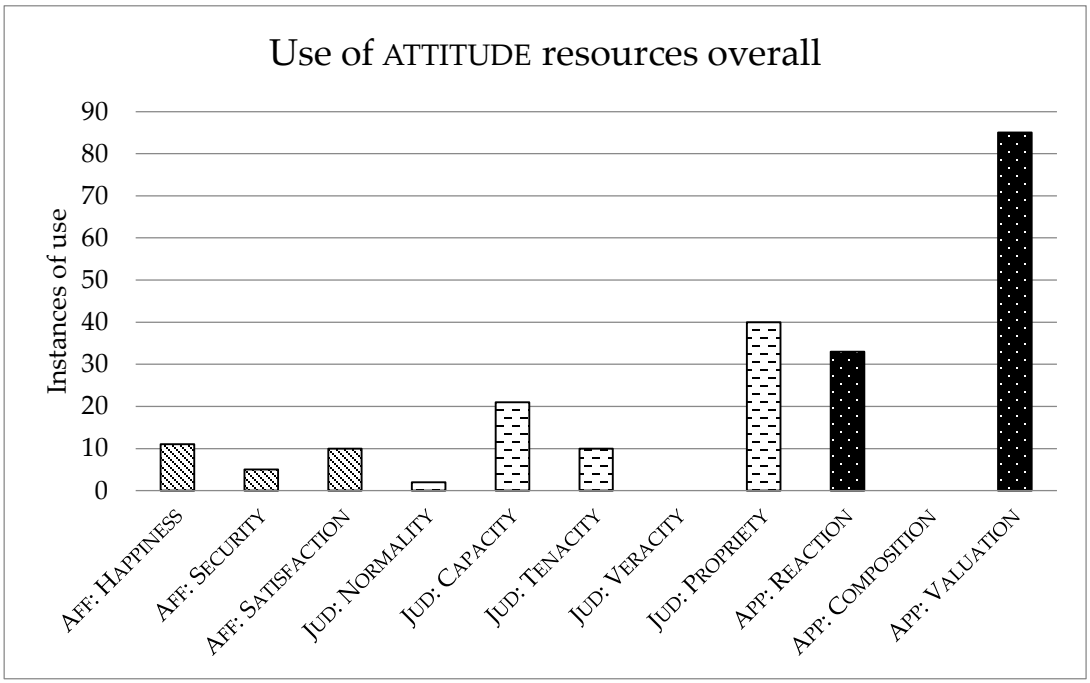

Figure 36. Use of ATTITUDE resources by year level.

Table 54. Use of ATTITUDE Resources by Year Level

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total
AFF: HAPPINESS	2	4	2	3	11
AFF: SECURITY	0	0	4	1	5
AFF: SATISFACTION	3	7	0	0	10
JUD: NORMALITY	0	0	0	2	2
JUD: CAPACITY	0	7	11	3	21
JUD: TENACITY	1	3	1	5	10
JUD: VERACITY	0	0	0	0	0
JUD: PROPRIETY	8	7	11	14	40
APP: REACTION	9	9	4	11	33
APP: COMPOSITION	0	0	0	0	0
APP: VALUATION	8	16	24	37	85
Frequency overall	31	53	57	76	
Repertoire overall	6/11	7/11	7/11	8/11	

The highest frequency resources – VALUATION (n=85), PROPRIETY (n=40) and REACTION (n=33) - were used numerous times by high scoring students at each year level. By contrast, the overall use of HAPPINESS (n=11) and TENACITY (n=10) resources was quite low, however texts at each year level featured these resources at least once. AFFECT: SECURITY was only used by secondary students,

while AFFECT: SATISFACTION was only used by primary school students. NORMALITY was only used by the Year 9 students, a small number of times (n=2). In terms of use, VALUATION was the only resource that increased according to year level, while no high scoring student used VERACITY or COMPOSITION to respond to the 2011 NAPLAN prompt.

7.3.5.2 - ATTITUDE choices overall: Positive and negative evaluations.

Table 55. Use of Positive and Negative ATTITUDE Overall

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total
AFFECT positive	2	8	4	2	16
AFFECT negative	3	3	2	2	10
JUDGEMENT positive	8	11	6	16	41
JUDGEMENT negative	1	6	17	8	32
APPRECIATION positive	10	24	27	45	106
APPRECIATION negative	7	1	1	3	12

When these uses of ATTITUDE were divided into positive and negative evaluations, APPRECIATION was most commonly by students in all year levels to positively evaluated phenomena (n=106), far exceeding negative evaluations of APPRECIATION (n=12). Following this, positive evaluations of JUDGEMENT (n=41) and negative evaluations of JUDGEMENT (n=32) were relatively similar in use, with Year 3, Year 7 and Year 9 students tending to focus on positive behaviours

and characteristics, while Year 5 students focused on the negative. Positive evaluations of AFFECT (n=16) were used more commonly than negative evaluations (n=10) by students in all year levels, aside from the Year 9 students who made an equally low number of positive and negative evaluations (n=2). Only positive evaluations of APPRECIATION increased gradually with each year level, while negative evaluations of AFFECT featured more strongly in the primary school texts (n=3) than in the secondary school texts (n=2), with this finding pronounced by a gradual increase in word count across years. Whether they wrote expositions or discussions, the high scoring students evaluated phenomena positively more often than negatively, regardless of their viewpoint on the NAPLAN prompt.

7.3.5.3 - ATTITUDE choices overall: Inscribed and invoked meanings.

Table 56. Use of Inscribed and Invoked ATTITUDE Overall

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total
AFFECT inscribed	5	9	4	4	22
AFFECT invoked	0	2	2	0	4
JUDGEMENT inscribed	3	5	9	3	20
JUDGEMENT invoked	6	12	14	21	53
APPRECIATION inscribed	6	15	8	15	44
APPRECIATION invoked	11	10	20	33	74

When considered in terms of inscription and invocation, the high scoring students invoked (n=131) attitudinal meanings more frequently than they inscribed them (n=86). Invoked APPRECIATION (n=74) was the most common form of evaluation in the texts, as students subtly appraised toys and games for the positive things they bring to human life. This was followed by invoked JUDGEMENT (n=53), used by the students to positively or negatively evaluate human characteristics or behaviours without the use of explicit attitudinal lexis.

Unlike the other subcategories, AFFECT was more commonly inscribed than invoked by all year levels, with Year 3 and Year 9 students choosing to exclusively inscribe such meanings, while Year 5 and Year 7 students inscribed most. Despite favouring inscribed AFFECT, the overall frequency of this subcategory was considerably less than JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION. Only invoked JUDGEMENT increased gradually across the year levels. Invoked APPRECIATION remained constant between Year 3 (n=11) and Year 5 (n=10), before gradually increasing at the levels of Year 7 (n=20) and Year 9 (n=33). By contrast, inscribed JUDGEMENT increased from Year 3 (n=3) to Year 7 (n=9), before dropping back the amount in Year 9 texts that featured in the younger Year 3 texts (n=3). Aside from the decrease in invoked APPRECIATION between the Year 3 and Year 5 texts, there was a general pattern in the increase in prominence of invocation with subsequent year levels. To understand at a finer level of delicacy how high scoring students used ideational meanings to affect attitudinal responses from readers, invoked meanings in the Year 3 and Year 9

texts were further distinguished for being *afforded*, *invited* or *provoked* by the authors (Martin & White, 2005).

7.3.5.4 - Analysis of invoked meanings in Year 3 and Year 9 texts.

As discussed in the review of the literature, invoked attitudinal meanings can be *provoked* through the use of lexical metaphors, *invited* through the intensification of core lexical items or the use of counter-expectancy to *flag* that attitudinal values are at stake; or by simply *affording* ATTITUDE through the use of ideational meanings that carry specific cultural values (Martin & White, 2005). Upon analysis of their invocations, it was discovered that Year 3 students provoked these meanings twice, invited them four times, and afforded them 11 times. By contrast, the Year 9 students provoked meanings nine times, invited them 19 times, and afforded them 26 times.

Table 57. Year 3 and Year 9 Students' Invoked Meanings by Type

Invocation type	Year 3 uses	Year 9 uses
Provoked	2	9
Flagged	4	19
Afforded	11	26

These figures were divided into the total instances of invoked meanings to find the proportion of each type and have been depicted as follows:

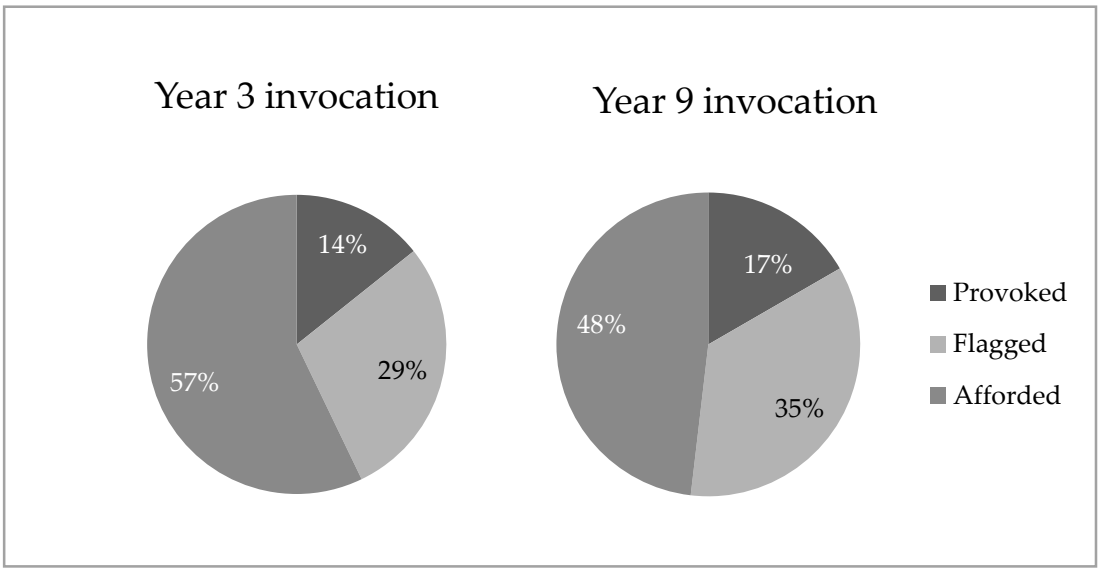

Figure 37. Year 3 and Year 9 invocation by type.

This figure indicates that ideational meanings were most commonly used to afford attitudinal responses in the persuasive texts at both year levels, yet the proportion of afforded meanings was 9% lower in the Year 9 texts than in the Year 3 texts. While the Year 3 students used ideational meanings to provoke and flag attitudinal responses 43% of the time, the older students flagged and provoked these meanings 52% of the time. According to Martin and White (2005), provoking and flagging restricts the reader's degree of freedom "in aligning with the values naturalised by the text" (p. 67). In this way, invocation was used by all high scoring students to evaluate phenomena subtly while appearing objective, yet at older year levels this process was intensified with an increased interpersonal cost for readers to align with alternative positions.

7.4 - Analysis of ENGAGEMENT Choices

7.4.1 - Year 3 ENGAGEMENT Choices.

Following the ATTITUDE analysis, an ENGAGEMENT analysis was conducted to determine how the high scoring students engaged with and acknowledged multiple viewpoints in their arguments, starting with the Year 3 texts (See Appendix 3 for full tables of ENGAGEMENT analysis). Again, while Christie and Derewianka (2008) did not typically focus on students' persuasive writing below the late adolescence phase (16-18 years old +), they described writing by students in the early childhood phase as having "limited awareness of audience" (p. 221). As discussed earlier, the high scoring Year 3 texts would be deemed more indicative of work at the lower end of the late childhood-early adolescence phase, which features "a more marked awareness of audience and some recognition of personal voice and engaging with others" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). As such, it was expected that the Year 3 texts would feature simple ENGAGEMENT choices. The first step in understanding how Year 3 students used ENGAGEMENT resources was to broadly categorise their utterances as monoglossic, heteroglossically contractive or heteroglossically expansive (Martin & White, 2005).

7.4.1.1 - Year 3 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

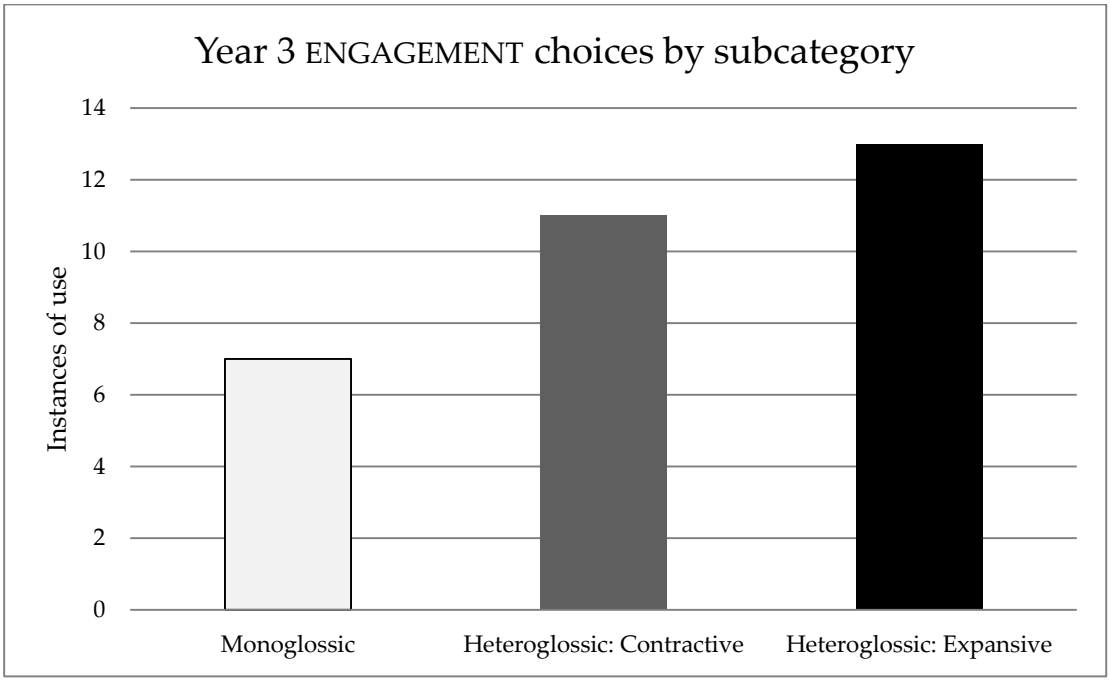

Figure 38. Year 3 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

The analysis revealed that high scoring Year 3 texts featured over three times the number of heteroglossic utterances (n=24) as monoglossic utterances (n=7), suggesting the students did have an awareness of their audience. When considered as two sets of meanings expanding or contracting the dialogic space for conflicting viewpoints, the Year 3 students used heteroglossic resources that expanded dialogic space (n=13) more commonly than those that contracted it (n=11), and both exceeded the use of monoglossic bare assertions (n=7). The students' uses of specific ENGAGEMENT resources from each subcategory are now explored in greater detail.

7.4.1.2 - Heteroglossic expansion in Year 3 texts.

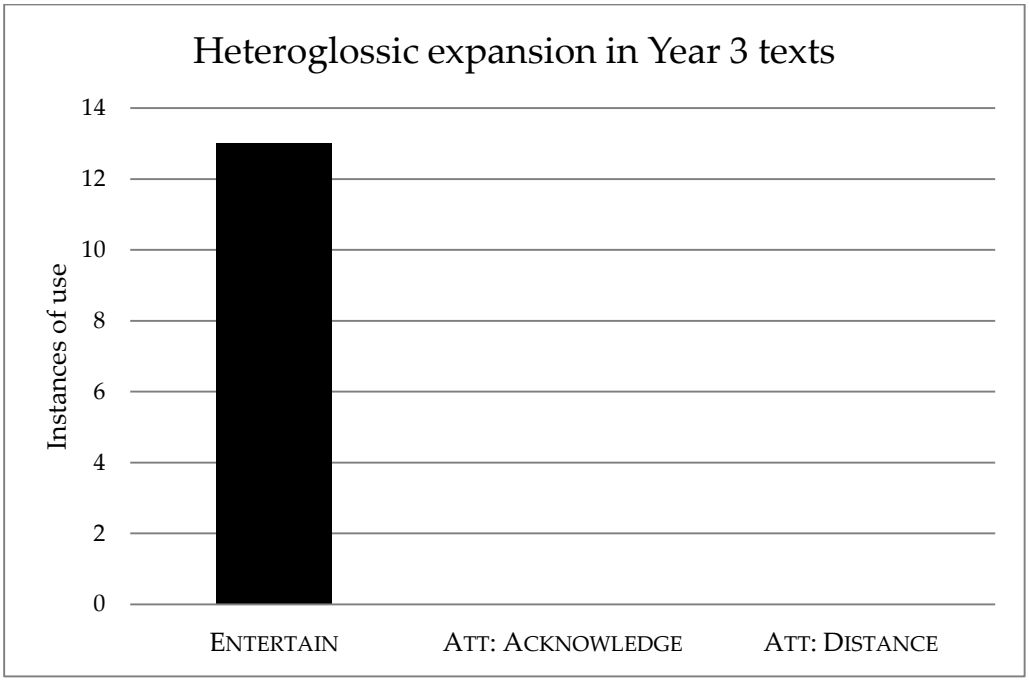

Figure 39. Heteroglossic expansion in Year 3 texts.

Year 3 students exclusively used ENTERTAIN (n=13) to expand dialogic space. This resource projects for a text an audience that may be divided over a topic, and therefore allows for the possibility of solidarity with readers who hold alternative views (Martin & White, 2005). Yet a feature of ENTERTAIN is that it can be altered through the use of modal auxiliaries, modal attributes, certain circumstances and mental projections, to change the degree of dialogic space for alternative positions (Martin & White, 2005). So while Year 3 students used this resource to expand dialogic space considerably on two occasions with the low intensity modal auxiliary *could*, the majority of uses involved higher intensity

modal forms that allowed for a lesser degree of dialogic expansion. Examples of lower and higher intensity modal forms are evident in the following extracts:

Year 3 extracts: ENTERTAIN *– Modality: Ability: Low intensity*

It could also support companies

Year 3 extracts: ENTERTAIN *– Modality: Probability: Low intensity*

Parents could get tired without them

Year 3 extracts: ENTERTAIN *– Modality: Probability: High intensity*

- Without toys and games, the fun would be sucked out of the world and there would be no more entertainment
- Family time will let children create a much needed sense of belonging
- Social skills will make sure children get along

Year 3 extracts: ENTERTAIN *– Modality: Obligation: High intensity*

- All children should have toys and games at home
- We should still have toys and games

While these are all examples of ENTERTAIN, the intensity of modal forms directly impacts on the amount of dialogic space provided to readers. As their most common uses of ENTERTAIN involved high modal intensity, dialogic space was usually restricted. In this way, the Year 3 students attempted to persuade readers by using the expansive ENTERTAIN in an almost contractive way, making it clear that their position was one of many possibilities, while still positioning readers to align with their point of view.

7.4.1.3 - Heteroglossic contraction in Year 3 texts.

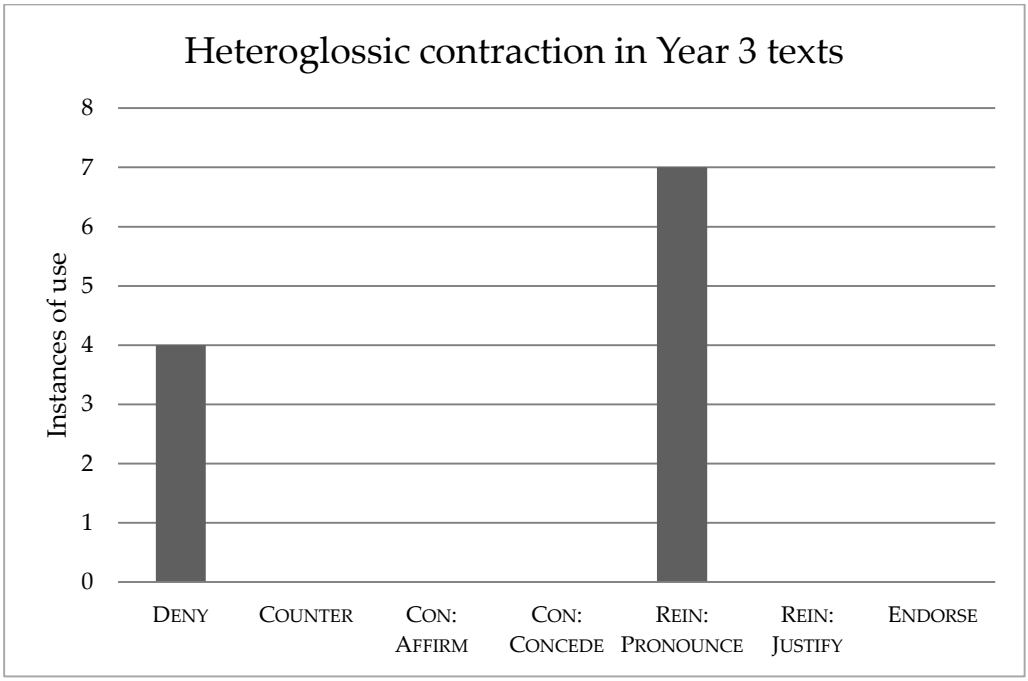

Figure 40. Heteroglossic contraction in Year 3 texts.

The Year 3 texts featured numerous instances of dialogically contractive utterances (n=11), consisting of the PRONOUNCE (n=7) and DENY (n=4) resources. Examples of each from the texts are presented in the extracts below:

Year 3 extracts: PRONOUNCE

- I am convinced that everyone in the world like toys and games at one point
- Lots of toys and games can be very educational

Year 3 extracts: DENY

- I am not in favour with this ridiculous concept
- . . . which means it isn't wasted money

The Year 3 students only used the contractive PRONOUNCE in the first halves of their arguments, as they overtly intruded into the texts to "assert or insist upon the value or warrantability of their propositions" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 128). Their use of DENY was restricted to the introductions of the texts only, as they denied any affiliation with the prompt heading. In this way, dialogically contractive resources were used by Year 3 students specifically to orient the audience to their views on the issue, after which they relied on the use of monoglossic assertions and ENTERTAIN as they attempted to persuade readers.

7.4.1.4 - Summary of Year 3 ENGAGEMENT choices.

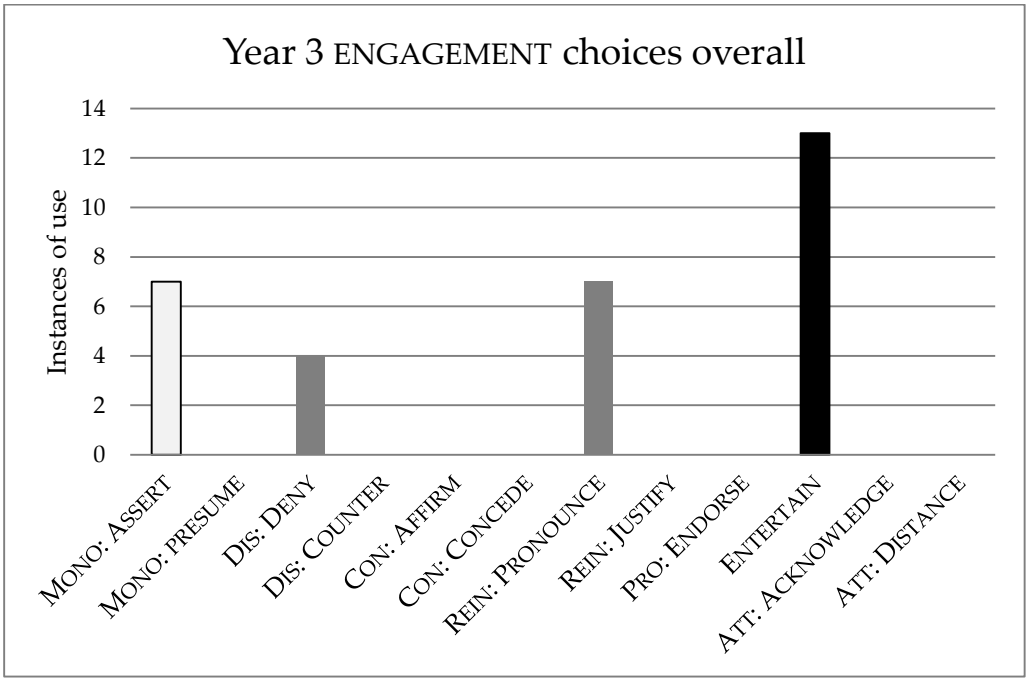

Figure 41. Year 3 ENGAGEMENT choices overall.

To summarise, the Year 3 texts featured a small set of four ENGAGEMENT resources: one monoglossic and three heteroglossic. Heteroglossic utterances

(n=24) outweighed the monoglossic (n=7) considerably, suggesting these young students did recognise the need to engage with or acknowledge the possibility of multiple viewpoints. To suit their persuasive purposes, the students provided little dialogic space for alternative perspectives, with even their use of the expansive ENTERTAIN (n=13) almost always featuring high modal intensity to limit dialogic space. The texts followed a similar pattern of contractive DENY (n=4) and PRONOUNCE (n=7) at the beginnings of their arguments to orient readers to their view on the issue, with the remainder of each text made up by monoglossic assertions (n=7) and ENTERTAIN (n=13) only.

7.4.2 - Year 5 ENGAGEMENT Choices.

7.4.2.1 - Year 5 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

While the Year 3 texts were indicative of the lower end of the *late childhood-early adolescence* phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008), the Year 5 texts were indicative of the upper end of the same phase. To unpack the Year 5 student's ENGAGEMENT choices, the first step was to categorise their utterances as monoglossic, heteroglossically expansive, or heteroglossically contractive.

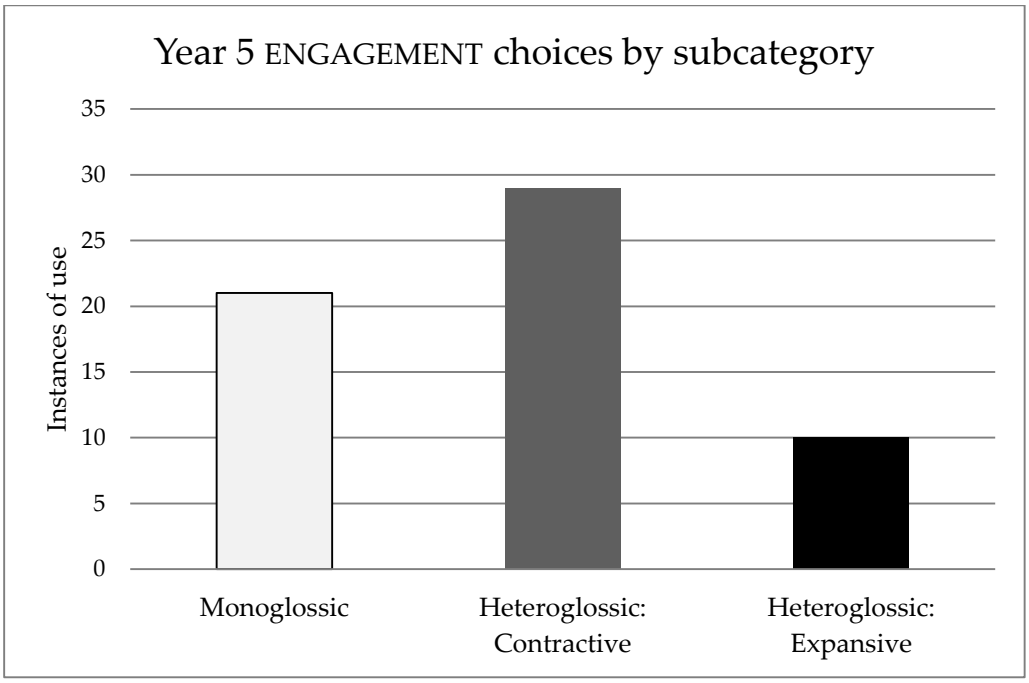

Figure 42. Year 5 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

The high scoring Year 5 students used approximately twice the number of ENGAGEMENT resources (n=60) as the Year 3 students had (n=31). Though the Year 3 texts featured more heteroglossic expansion than the other subcategories, the Year 5 texts featured heteroglossically contractive resources most commonly (n=29), followed by monoglossic utterances (n=21), while expansive resources were the least common overall (n=10). In this way the Year 5 students drew on contractive resources more than their younger counterparts, who instead tended to use the expansive ENTERTAIN resource in a dialogically contractive way.

7.4.2.2 - Heteroglossic expansion in Year 5 texts.

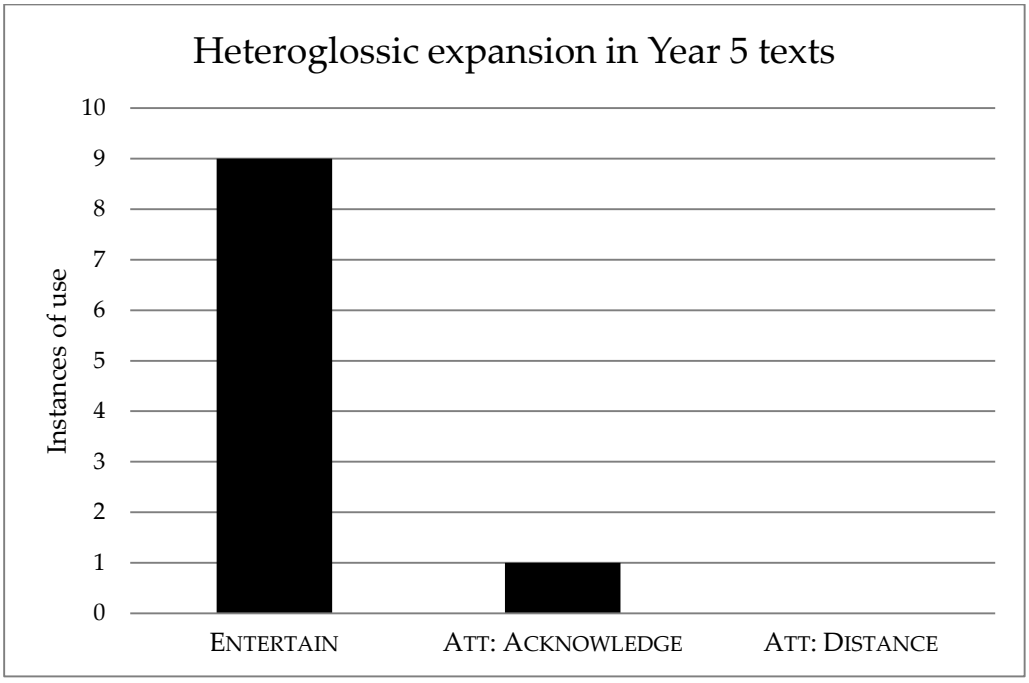

Figure 43. Heteroglossic expansion in Year 5 texts.

No patterns of use of expansive resources were evident in the Year 5 texts, with these resources used at seemingly random points throughout the texts. As with the Year 3 students, the Year 5 students used ENTERTAIN (n=9) in a number of different ways:

Year 5 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Probability: Low intensity

- *. . . the money <u>could</u> go on for a better world*
- *. . . we are using money that <u>could</u> go on for the better*
- *We <u>could</u> use the money that we use on games to charities*

Year 5 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Probability: High intensity

- *You <u>would</u> be having fun while getting some exercise*
- *A kite <u>would</u> be flying with wind*
- *It <u>will</u> make us go on and go on, learning*

Year 5 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Obligation: High intensity

. . . if we were going to buy one, we <u>must</u> think twice

Year 5 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Expository question

There is a saying . . . Laughter is the best medicine. <u>Have you heard of it?</u>

These students used ENTERTAIN with high modal intensity most of the time, limiting the dialogic space in the same way that the younger students had. Utterances with low modal intensity were only used by one Year 5 student who wrote a Discussion, and only when providing arguments in support of the NAPLAN prompt. So while they argued the money *could* go on for a better world, spending money on toys and games *will* make us go on and go on learning, or keep us fit. As this example shows, the author presented two sides of the issue, yet expanded the dialogic space for alternative positions when arguing for the prompt, and contracted the dialogic space when arguing against the prompt, thus positioning readers to align with the view that we are not spending too much money on toys and games. The last example presented above highlights how the Year 5 students also used what Martin and White (2005) referred to as "certain types of 'rhetorical' or 'expository' questions . . .

which don't assume a specific response but are employed to raise the possibility that some proposition holds" (p. 105). In this case the question does not assume a particular response from readers, but rather implies prior knowledge of such a saying may vary, and therefore hints at the heteroglossic backdrop within which this text was being formed. The Year 5 students also used another expansive resource in their persuasive texts: ATTRIBUTE ACKNOWLEDGE:

> *Year 5 extracts: attribute: acknowledge*
> . . . <u>people say</u> we are wasting too much money with them

The use of this resource, which acts to "associate a proposition being advanced with voices which are external to that of the text itself" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 112), demonstrated a somewhat greater repertoire of expansive resources at the Year 5 level, despite a lower frequency than at the Year 3 level. Instead of this, Year 5 students relied more commonly on dialogically contractive resources when engaging with or acknowledging multiple viewpoints.

7.4.2.3 - Heteroglossic contraction in Year 5 texts.

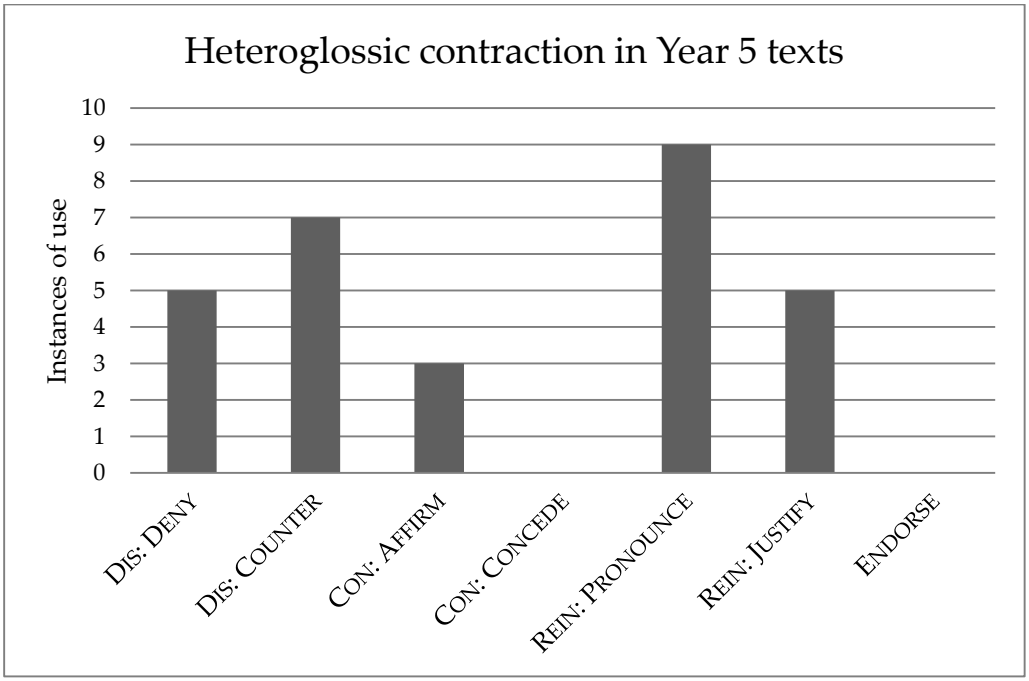

Figure 44. Heteroglossic contraction in Year 5 texts.

The Year 5 texts featured five of the seven contractive resources, compared to just two that appeared in the Year 3 texts. The Year 5 students used both DISCLAIM resources (COUNTER: n=7, DENY: n=5), and three of the five PROCLAIM resources (PRONOUNCE: n=9, JUSTIFY: n=5, AFFIRM: n=3). While all of these resources contract dialogic space, they can be thought of as on a cline from more contractive to less contractive (Humphrey, 2008; Körner, 2000). These students did not simply use the resources haphazardly, they used them strategically to control the degree of dialogic space available to readers, while rarely allowing that space to expand beyond a certain point. This is demonstrated in the familiar Year 5 extract about kites, curiosity and learning:

Year 5 extracts: Heteroglossic contraction

> . . . some toys and games can help you learn. For example, a kite is a toy, but when you fly it, it becomes much more. A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind, but this makes us curious, so we learn about cyclones (which has something to do with wind), but this even makes us more curious, so we learn about other natural disasters. It will make us go on and go on, learning

The paragraph begins with the suggestion that some toys and games *can* help you learn. This subtle use of PRONOUNCE asserts the author's position and acts as a launching point for the subsequent dialogic patterning via the example of flying a kite. The author closes the dialogic space entirely with the following bare assertion that a kite is a toy, though opens it again with the counter that when you fly it, it becomes much more. In this way, readers who would usually look upon a kite as a simple toy, are positioned by the use of PRONOUNCE and COUNTER to consider the possibility that this item can be something more meaningful. This use of language is intriguing, as the reader is not explicitly told until the final clause what this *becoming much more* entails. The rest of the extract is used by the author to justify this claim.

The dialogic space is opened to its widest point as the author uses ENTERTAIN to state that a kite *would* be flying with wind. As with previous uses of ENTERTAIN, the dialogic space remains restricted in this instance by the high

intensity modal form *would*. The space is closed as the author's use of JUSTIFY suggests that flying a kite will cause people to understand wind. This presents the proposition as arguable, yet compels readers to accept it by restricting the dialogic space for alternative viewpoints. The space is contracted further as the author transitions from this resource of PROCLAIM to one of DISCLAIM, countering the unspoken notion that learning would end with people understanding wind. Here they use COUNTER to state that this learning makes us curious, which leads to another justification that we would learn about cyclones as a direct result of this curiousness. The dialogic space is opened and closed through the use of JUSTIFY and COUNTER, with the variation occurring within the contractive region of the cline. The author breaks the pattern by closing the space entirely with a monoglossic assertion that cyclones have *something to do with wind.* Perhaps acknowledging how this utterance breaks the pattern, the author encloses it within brackets, before re-establishing the pattern by COUNTERING the previous justification with a claim that this *even* makes us more curious. Here the author intrudes into the text by using *even* to evaluate the increased curiousness as "contrary to expectation" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 67), and therefore flags a positive evaluation of the phenomenon causing this to occur.

To conclude this extract, the author opens the dialogic space further with the justification that this increased curiousness would cause people to learn about other natural disasters, before the space is opened with a final use of

ENTERTAIN to suggest it *will* make us go on and go on, learning. The dialogic patterning of this sequence is represented in the following table and figure:

Table 58. Dialogic Patterning in Year 5 Extract

M	HC	HE	Instantiation
	PRP		some toys can help you learn
MA			a kite is a toy
	DC		but when you fly it, it becomes much more
		E	A kite would be flying with wind
	PRJ		so people will understand wind
	DC		but this makes us curious
	PRJ		so we learn about cyclones
MA			which has something to do with wind
	DC		but this even makes us more curious
	PRJ		so we learn about other natural disasters
		E	It will make us go on and go on, learning

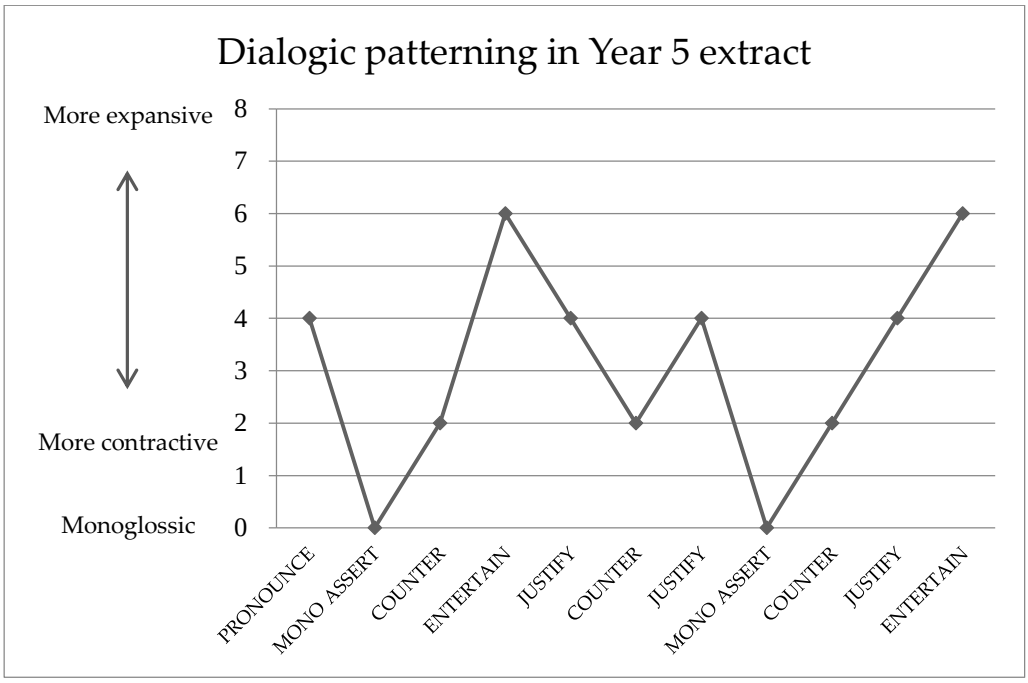

Figure 45. Dialogic patterning in Year 5 extract.

This patterning highlights how dialogic space was never completely opened, even when the author used the expansive ENTERTAIN. The author increased and decreased dialogic space as the extract developed, shifting most frequently between DISCLAIM: COUNTER and PROCLAIM: JUSTIFY. The extract concluded by moving gradually up the cline, from a closed monoglossic assertion, to the more contractive COUNTER, to the less contractive JUSTIFY, and finally to the use of ENTERTAIN. In this way the author controlled the dialogic space to end with a somewhat restricted expansion that would increase the possibility of solidarity being built with those holding alternative viewpoints. This single extract was unpacked to this degree to demonstrate how high scoring Year 5 students not only made use of an increased repertoire of

contractive resources, but used them strategically to control dialogic space for rhetorical purposes.

7.4.2.4 - Summary of Year 5 ENGAGEMENT choices.

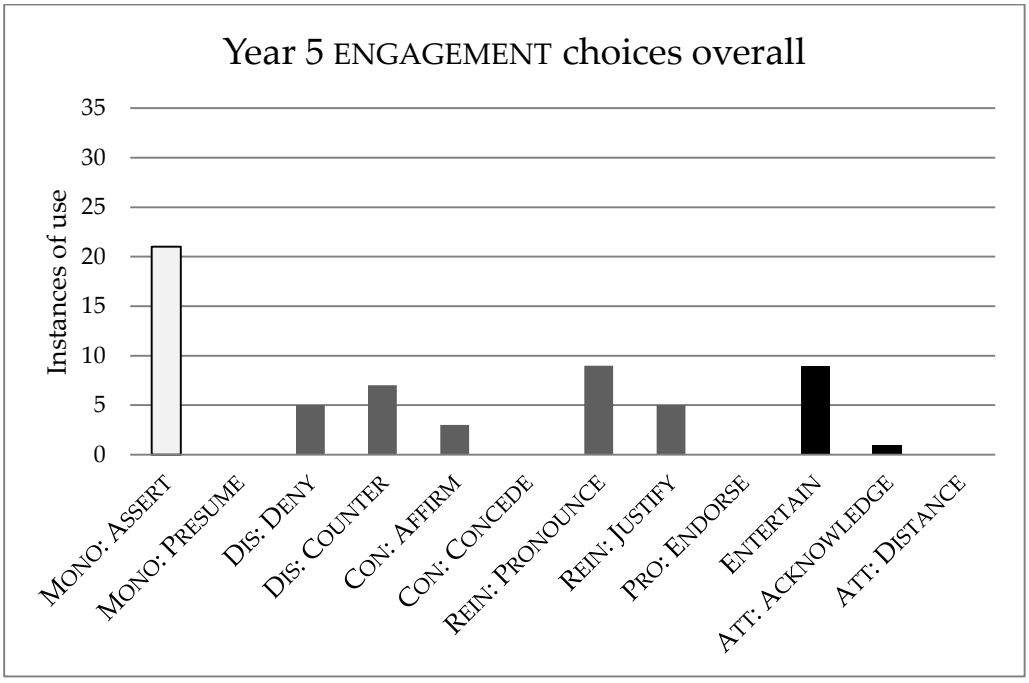

Figure 46. Year 5 ENGAGEMENT choices overall.

Overall the Year 5 students made considerably more complex ENGAGEMENT choices than the younger Year 3 students, with an increased repertoire of eight of the possible 12 resources, including at least one from each major ENGAGEMENT subcategory. When considered separately, monoglossic assertions (n=21) were used more commonly than any heteroglossic resource, yet when combined, the resources of heteroglossic contraction (n=29) outweighed the resource of both monoglossic and heteroglossic expansion (n=10). The Year 5 texts featured more expansive (2/3) and contractive

resources (5/7) than the Year 3 equivalents, and they used contractive resources strategically for rhetorical purposes.

7.4.3 - Year 7 ENGAGEMENT Choices.

Being at the cusp of the mid-adolescence phase of writing development (Christie & Derewianka, 2008), the Year 7 students were expected to make more complex ENGAGEMENT choices than those seen in the primary texts. Students in this phase show "a greater engagement with audience and some awareness of differing perspectives" (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). As with the primary texts, the first step in analysing the Year 7 texts was to categorise their use of ENGAGEMENT resources into the three major subcategories.

7.4.3.1 - Year 7 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

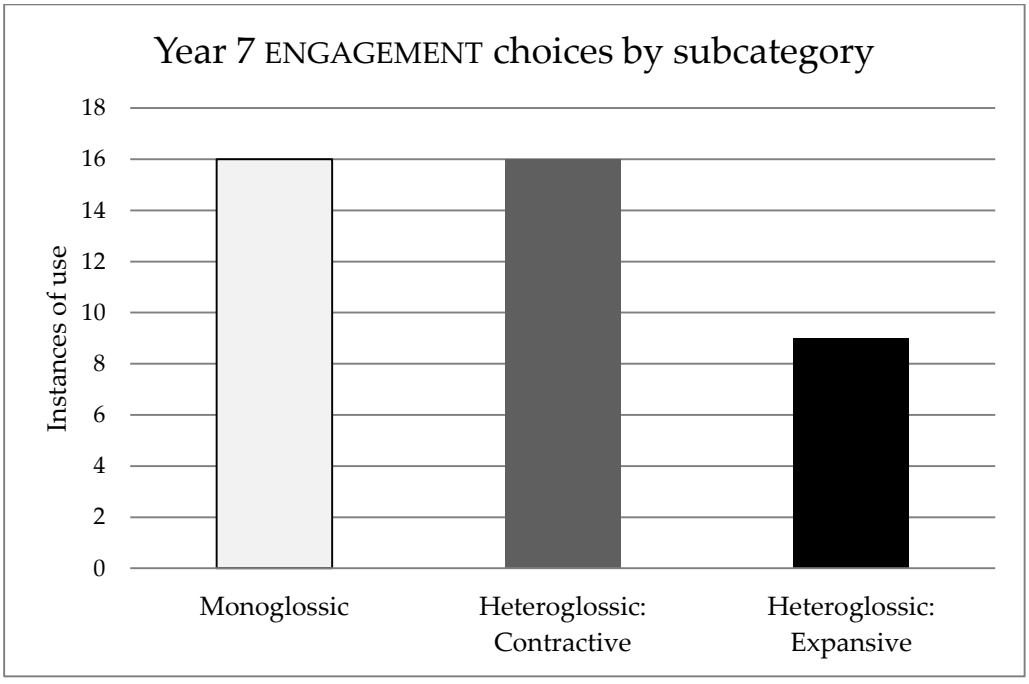

Figure 47. Year 7 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

Against expectations, the Year 7 texts featured considerably fewer ENGAGEMENT resources (n=41) than the Year 5 texts (n=60), while the overall pattern of use was relatively similar. The Year 7 students attempted to persuade readers with the use of dialogically contractive resources (n=16) and monoglossic utterances (n=16), rather than resources of heteroglossic expansion (n=9). While Year 5 students clearly favoured the contractive over both other subcategories, the Year 7 students' choices were more balanced, with the same frequency of monoglossic and contractive resources, and a relatively comparable number of expansive resources. To discover more about the complexity of Year 7 students' choices, the next stage was to unpack their use of expansive resources further.

7.4.3.2 - Heteroglossic expansion in Year 7 texts.

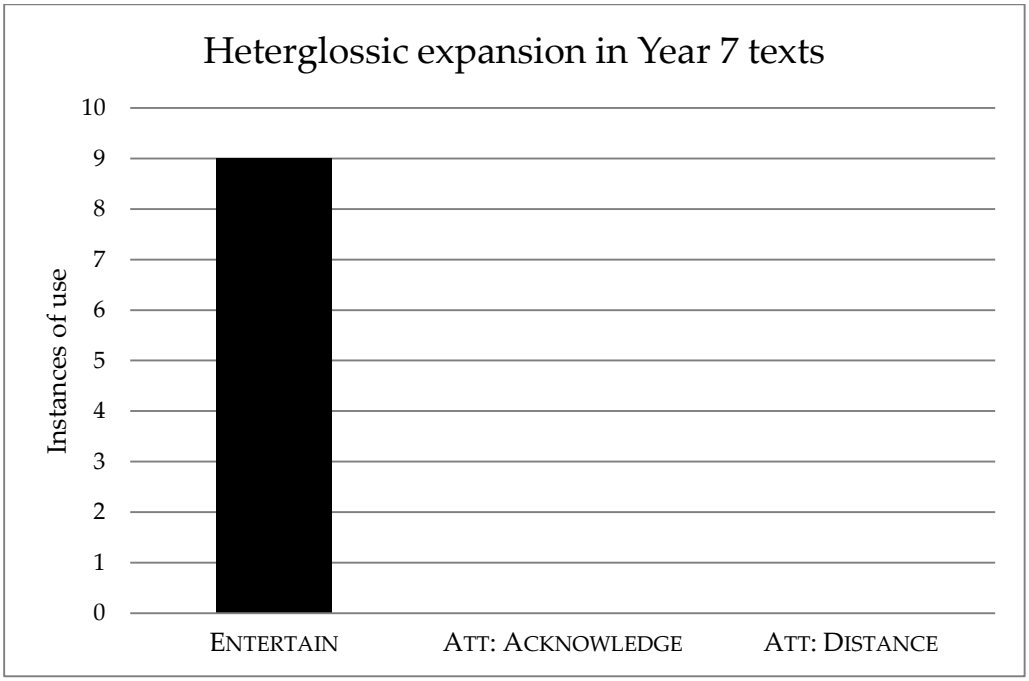

Figure 48. Heteroglossic expansion in Year 7 texts.

While Year 7 students only made use of the expansive ENTERTAIN resource (n=9), their choices were similar to the Year 5 choices in terms of frequency, with the only difference being that ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE featured once in the Year 5 texts. In this way, Year 7 students' repertoire of expansive resources was less than the Year 5 students' and the same as the younger Year 3 students'. ENTERTAIN featured in every stage of the Year 7 arguments, apart from the reinforcement of thesis stage, which featured only monoglossic and contractive resources. Both primary year levels tended to use high modal intensity to restrict the dialogic space expanded by ENTERTAIN, and the Year 5 students in particular showed how modality could be used strategically to present sides of an issue as more or less difficult for readers to oppose. The Year 7 students' various uses of ENTERTAIN are evident in the following extracts:

Year 7 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Probability: Low intensity

- Without the escape from reality . . . a kid <u>may</u> develop anxiety
- If a kid is given a basketball . . . they <u>may</u> become the next basketball legend

Year 7 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Probability: High intensity

- Without . . . skills it would be very hard to live a normal life
- If a baby isn't given games . . . their brain will develop much slower
- Not letting a kid access . . . toys will make them lazy
- . . . stop and think what this will do to your child

Year 7 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Obligation: High intensity

. . . there are many reasons that toys are good and deserve to have money spent on them

Year 7 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Modality: Inclination: Medium intensity

- I would like to first and foremost state my opinion on . . .
- I would like to argue against the statement . . .

Year 7 extracts: ENTERTAIN – Expository question

How will this affect them?

The Year 7 students wrote analytical expositions, and as such did not argue for both sides of the issue. This meant the expansive patterns found in the Year 5 texts – which featured a discussion – were not evident in the Year 7 texts. Despite this, the older students realised ENTERTAIN meanings in a larger variety of ways, including the use of high and low intensity modal probability, high intensity modal obligation, medium intensity modal inclination, and an expository question. Of these, high intensity probability was again the most commonly used, highlighting how high scoring students tended to restrict

dialogic space for their rhetorical purposes. The Year 7 students always used modal probability to outline if/then causal relationships, increasing or decreasing the modal intensity to suggest how probable the outcome would be. Low modal intensity was only used when the outcome was relatively improbable, such as a child developing mental illnesses if they are not given toys, or a child becoming the next basketball legend if given a basketball. By contrast, high modal intensity was used for more probable outcomes, such as it being difficult for a child to live a normal life without motor and cognitive skills, or being more likely to be inactive if not allowed to access sporting equipment. The Year 7 texts were also the first to feature modal inclination, with one author intruding into the text to announce their intention to argue against the prompt.

7.4.3.3 - Heteroglossic contraction in Year 7 texts.

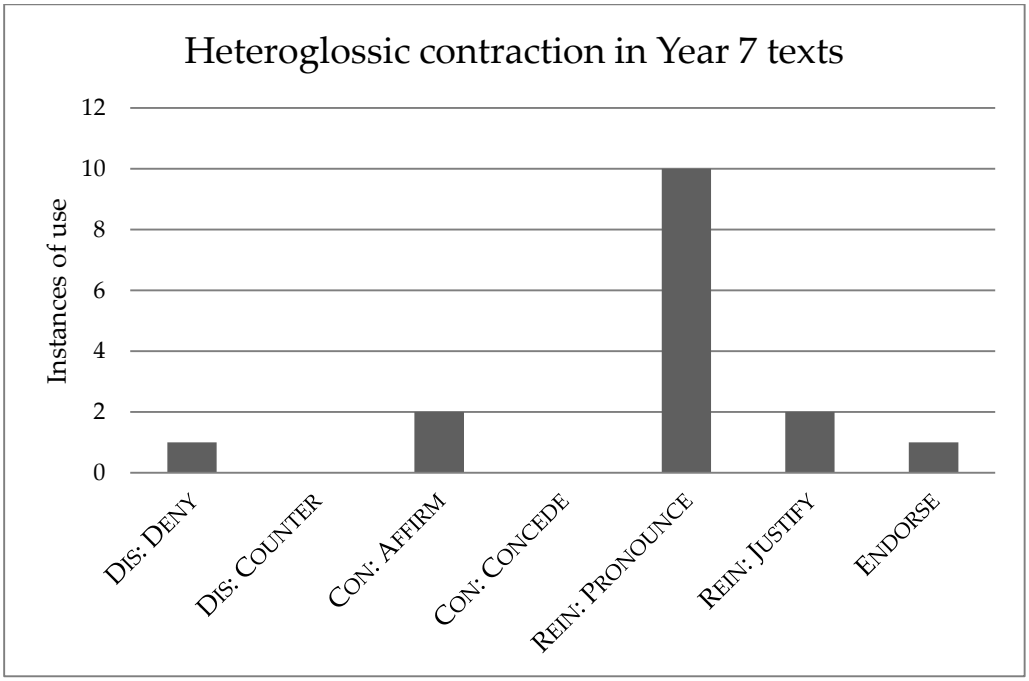

Figure 49. Heteroglossic contraction in Year 7 texts.

Dialogically contractive resources were used in each stage of the Year 7 arguments. Their frequency of use by Year 7 students (n=16) was approximately half that of Year 5 students (n=29). Regarding specific resources, PRONOUNCE (n=10) was used most commonly, followed by JUSTIFY (n=2) and AFFIRM (n=2).

Year 7 extracts: PRONOUNCE

- Games and toys <u>have been proven</u> to improve happiness
- Without educational toys, <u>it has been scientifically proven</u> for the child to have mental problems

Year 7 extracts: AFFIRM

Not letting children have toys is encouraging . . . them to be overweight . . . and behind in the classroom. <u>Is that how you really want your child to turn out</u>?

In the example of AFFIRM, this contractive resource was realised via a rhetorical question that required no answer, "on account of [the] answer being so *obvious*" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 123). In this case, the assumed answer would be that *of course* readers do not want their children to turn out overweight and behind in the classroom. Overall, the Year 5 and Year 7 texts featured the same repertoire of contractive resources (5/7), though Year 7 students used ENDORSE, while Year 5 students used COUNTER. An example of ENDORSE from a Year 7 text is visible in the extract below:

Year 7 extracts: ENDORSE

Recent studies have shown that children with sporting toys will be 75% healthier than someone without

While no individual or group is named, those responsible for these recent studies are implicitly endorsed as having proven the health benefits of owning sporting toys, and in doing so the writer "enters into a dialogic relationship of alignment" with such sources (Martin & White, 2005, p. 126). The Year 7 students' use of contractive resources was less complex overall than the Year 5 students' use, as the frequency of each resource apart from PRONOUNCE and ENDORSE decreased, and there were less obvious strategic patternings of the dialogically contractive meanings.

7.4.3.4 - Summary of Year 7 ENGAGEMENT choices.

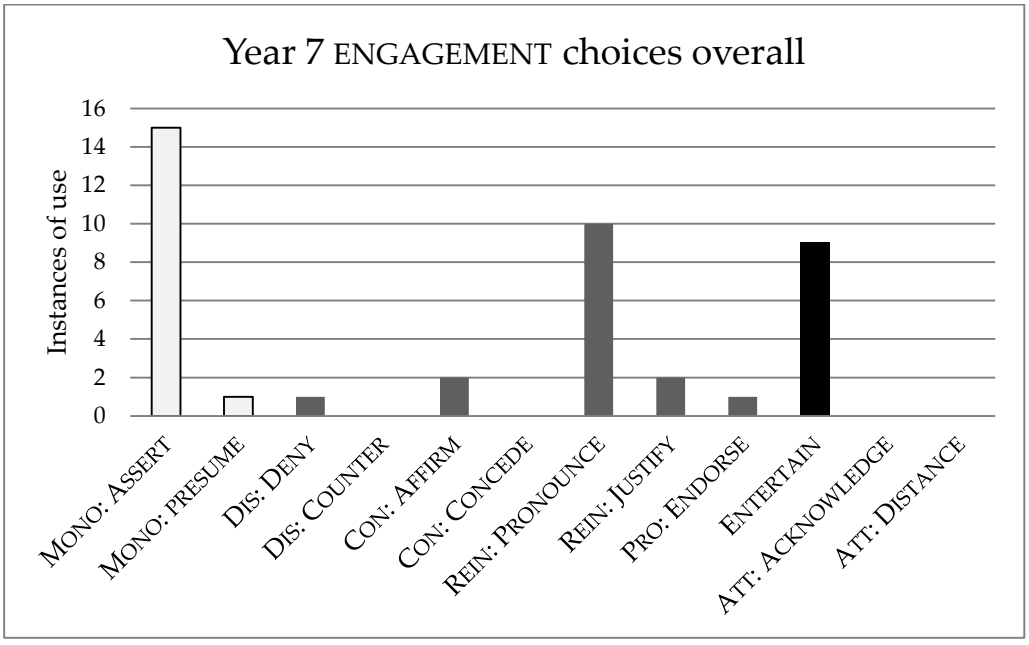

Figure 50. Year 7 ENGAGEMENT choices overall.

In summary, the Year 7 texts featured two resources that were not used by primary students: monoglossic presumption (n=1) and ENDORSE (n=1), though the most commonly used resources were again monoglossic assertions (n=15), the contractive PRONOUNCE (n=10) and the expansive ENTERTAIN (n=9). These three resources accounted for 34 of the 41 uses of ENGAGEMENT overall, emphasising the important role they played in the Year 7 texts. Year 7 students' ENGAGEMENT choices were relatively similar to those of Year 5 students, as both year levels had repertoires of eight ENGAGEMENT resources, and both relied of the expansive ENTERTAIN and contractive PRONOUNCE more than any other resource from those subcategories, yet Year 5 students also made use of numerous other resources numerous times, making for a more balanced spread across the ENGAGEMENT cline than what featured in the Year 7 texts. The Year 7 texts featured a wider range of modal types to modify ENTERTAIN values, and both types of monoglossic utterances, while the contractive choices appeared less complex overall.

7.4.4 - Year 9 ENGAGEMENT Choices.

"Dialogic ENGAGEMENT with a wider community is evident" in the writing of students in the late adolescence phase (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, p. 221). As such it was expected that the Year 9 students would make greater use of ENGAGEMENT resources such as ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE and DISTANCE, as well as PROCLAIM: ENDORSE to explicitly draw voices from the wider community into their arguments.

7.4.4.1 - Year 9 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

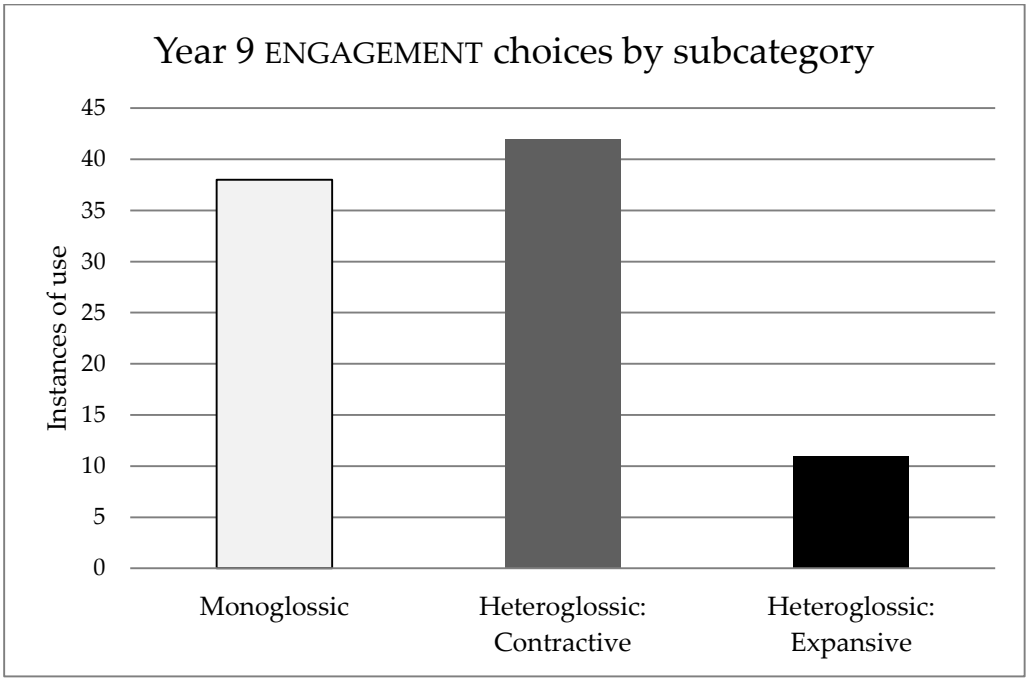

Figure 51. Year 9 ENGAGEMENT choices by subcategory.

The analysis revealed that Year 9 texts featured the highest frequency of ENGAGEMENT resources of all year levels (n=91), in line with an increased average text length. Continuing the trend established at the Year 5 level, the Year 9 texts most commonly featured dialogically contractive resources (n=42), followed closely by monoglossic utterances (n=38), yet featured considerably fewer dialogically expansive resources (n=11). These choices are now explored further.

7.4.4.2 - Monoglossic utterances in Year 9 texts.

While one Year 7 text featured a single monoglossic presumption, every other high scoring text below the Year 9 level featured only monoglossic

assertions. In Year 9, the majority of monoglossic utterances were again assertions (n=33), though the texts did feature some monoglossic presumptions also (n=5). Unlike monoglossic assertions which present a proposition as at issue and directly available for discussion or debate, monoglossic presumptions remove the proposition from being directly available for argument, construing it as a given (White, 2012b):

> *Year 9 extracts: Monoglossic presumption*
> The excessive amount of money we spend on games could go to poorer countries

As a whole, this proposition can be described as dialogically expansive in suggesting the money spent on games *could* go to poorer countries, however its beginning contains the monoglossic presumption that an excessive amount of money is being spent on games. Embedding monoglossic utterances within propositions in this way demonstrated a refined ability for secondary school students to evaluate phenomena and pass judgements more subtly than primary school students.

7.4.4.3 - Heteroglossic expansion in Year 9 texts.

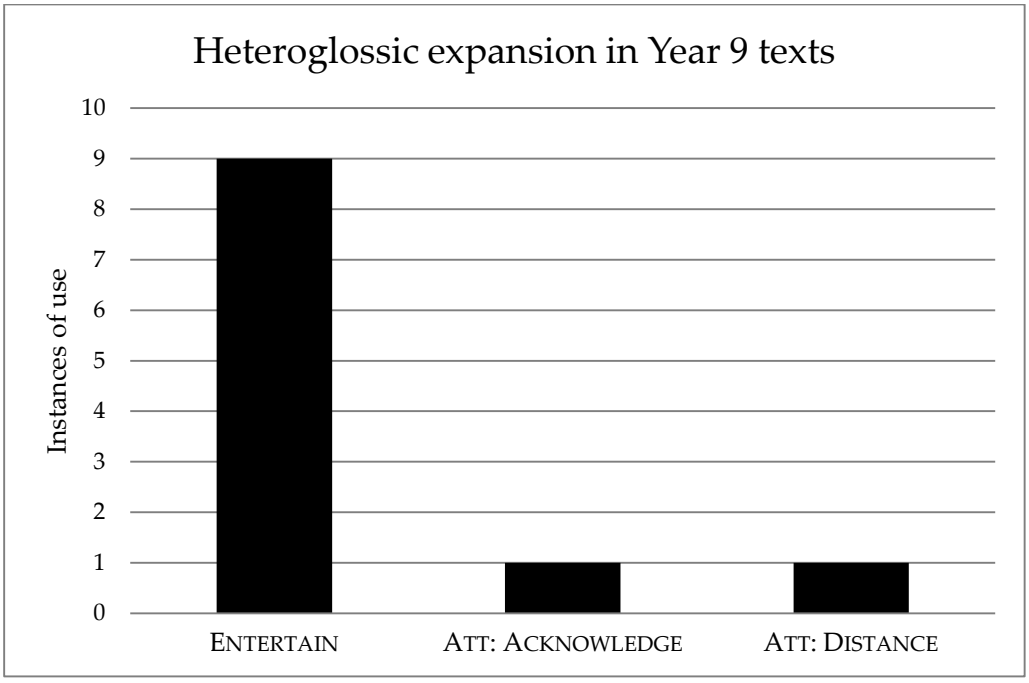

Figure 52. Heteroglossic expansion in Year 9 texts.

The Year 9 students used ENGAGEMENT resources to expand dialogic space on eleven occasions, and was the only year level to feature all three expansive resources at least once. The majority of expansive uses involved ENTERTAIN (n=9), while ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE and ATTRIBUTE: DISTANCE were each used once. One Year 9 text featured ENTERTAIN throughout most stages of their text, while the other used it only once in the final argument of their text. To highlight its use in the first text, an extract from one argument is presented as follows:

Year 9 extracts: Dialogic patterning[9]

> Spending bucket-loads of cash on toys and games may keep you happy for now, *but* allocating these funds to your health and education could look after you in the long run. Good education will set you up for life. It *can* give you a job, *therefore* a source of income and a way of life. Toys may be fun, *but* education is vital.

Here, the Year 9 student sided with the prompt heading by arguing that money spent on health and education would be more beneficial to a person than money spent on toys. The dialogic space is expanded at the beginning, as it is suggested that games *may* keep you happy, yet this is countered with the suggestion that health and education *could* look after you in the long run. The use of ENTERTAIN for both sides of the argument allows for solidarity with audience members regardless of their perspective, while the use of the contractive COUNTER positioned the student to continue explaining benefits of spending money on health and education. From this point, the student gradually reduced dialogic space for those who would disagree with the notion that health and education are more beneficial, by using ENTERTAIN with high intensity modal probability (i.e., education *will* set you up for life), then the contractive REINFORCE: PRONOUNCE (i.e., It *can* give you a job), then the

---

[9] In this extract, underlining indicates entertain, while italics indicates contractive resources

contractive REINFORCE: JUSTIFY (i.e., *therefore* a source of income), and finally the more contractive DISCLAIM: COUNTER (i.e., *but* education is vital).

Conversely, the student kept the position that spending money on toys is beneficial dialogically open and easily opposed, through the use of ENTERTAIN with low intensity modal probability (i.e., Toys *may* be fun). In this way, the student controlled dialogic space for one position, leading the reader to side with it through gradually declining dialogic space, while simultaneously keeping the other position open and easily challenged. The dialogic patterning of both positions is represented in the following figure.

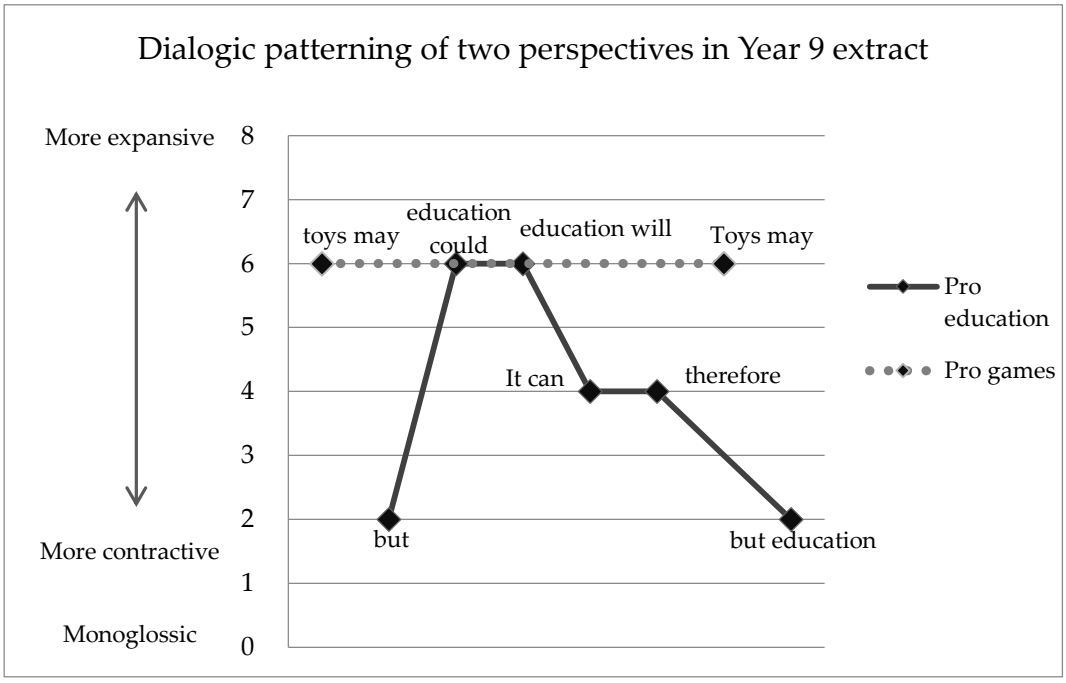

Figure 53. Dialogic patterning of two perspectives in Year 9 extract.

This figure indicates that Year 9 students used modality to modify expansive resources in the same way as all high scoring students, yet it

simultaneously highlights the important role played by contractive resources to restrict dialogic space for alternative perspectives. While Year 9 students made use of dialogically expansive resources less than resources from the other ENGAGEMENT subcategories, they made use of dialogically contractive resources most of all.

7.4.4.4 - Heteroglossic contraction in Year 9 texts.

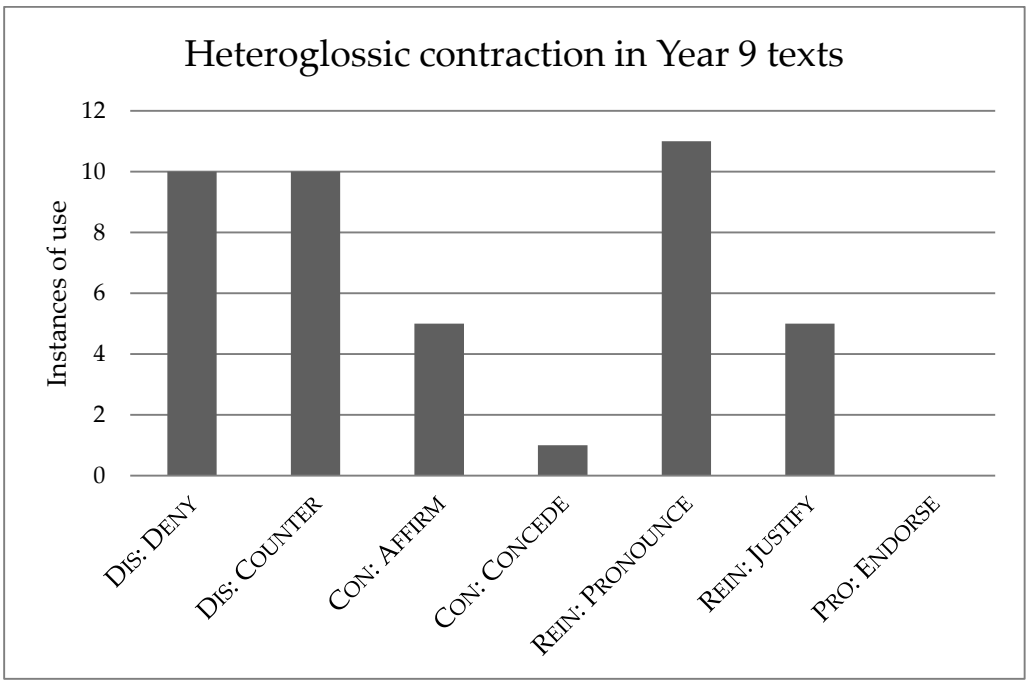

Figure 54. Heteroglossic contraction in Year 9 texts.

While the Year 7 texts featured PRONOUNCE on ten separate occasions, they only featured the other six contractive resources once, twice, or not at all. By comparison, Year 9 students used five of the seven contractive resources on five or more occasions, making for the most varied repertoire of contractive resources across the year levels. In order of frequency, these were PRONOUNCE

(n=11), DENY (n=10), COUNTER (n=10), AFFIRM (n=5) and JUSTIFY (n=5). The only contractive resource not featured in the Year 9 texts at least once was PROCLAIM: ENDORSE. Aside from this, there was a greater frequency of each contractive resource in the Year 9 texts than in any other year level, aside from JUSTIFY which was equal highest with the Year 5 texts (n=5). In their writing, Year 9 students would often cluster numerous dialogically contractive resources, opening and closing dialogic space while keeping it restricted within the contractive part of the cline, as in the following extract:

> *Year 9 extracts: Dialogic contraction*
> In fact almost every board game in the world has at least some form of education involved. We cannot say that our children are spending too much money on education, can we? So it figures that we are not spending too much money on toys and games.

Five uses of contractive resources are underlined in this extract, which build upon each other to enhance the rhetorical impact of the concluding uses of JUSTIFY and DENY. The student initially used PRONOUNCE (i.e., In fact) to assert that board games are at least partly educational. This involved them intruding into the text to "assert or insist upon the value or warrantability of the proposition" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 128), with such a language choice considered dialogic, as it implies "the presence of some resistance . . . against which the authorial voice asserts itself" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 128). This was

followed by the use of DENY to state that we cannot say children are spending too much money on education, and a rhetorical question (i.e., can we?), realising the same effect as CONCUR: AFFIRM. With the audience positioned to respond – *of course too much money cannot be spent on education* – the student uses the string of contractive propositions to JUSTIFY (i.e., So it figures) the final use of DENY (i.e., we are *not* spending too much money on toys and games).

7.4.4.5 - Summary of Year 9 ENGAGEMENT choices.

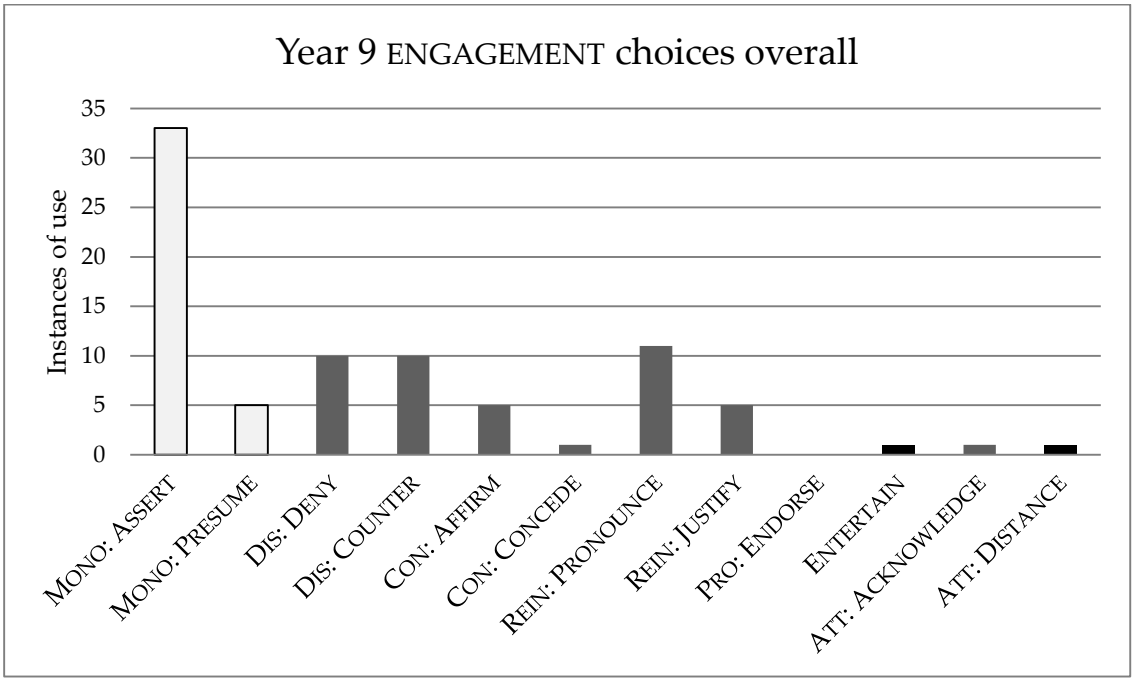

Figure 55. Year 9 ENGAGEMENT choices overall.

Regarding ENGAGEMENT choices, the Year 9 texts were more complex than the Year 7 texts in every way. The frequency and repertoire of resources in each ENGAGEMENT subcategory were greater in the Year 9 texts, and notable patterns were evident in how the students used dialogically expansive and

contractive resources to control the dialogic space available. While they featured more than twice the monoglossic and dialogically contractive resources as the Year 7 texts, the Year 9 texts featured only a slightly higher frequency of expansive resources, and when considered alongside a greater word count, this suggests a lower proportion of heteroglossic expansion in the Year 9 texts overall. Instead, Year 9 students more commonly used dialogically contractive resources and monoglossic utterances in the attempt to persuade readers.

7.4.5 - Summary of ENGAGEMENT Choices Overall.

With the ENGAGEMENT choices unpacked for each year level, the next stage of the analysis was to consider how these choices varied across the four year levels more broadly:

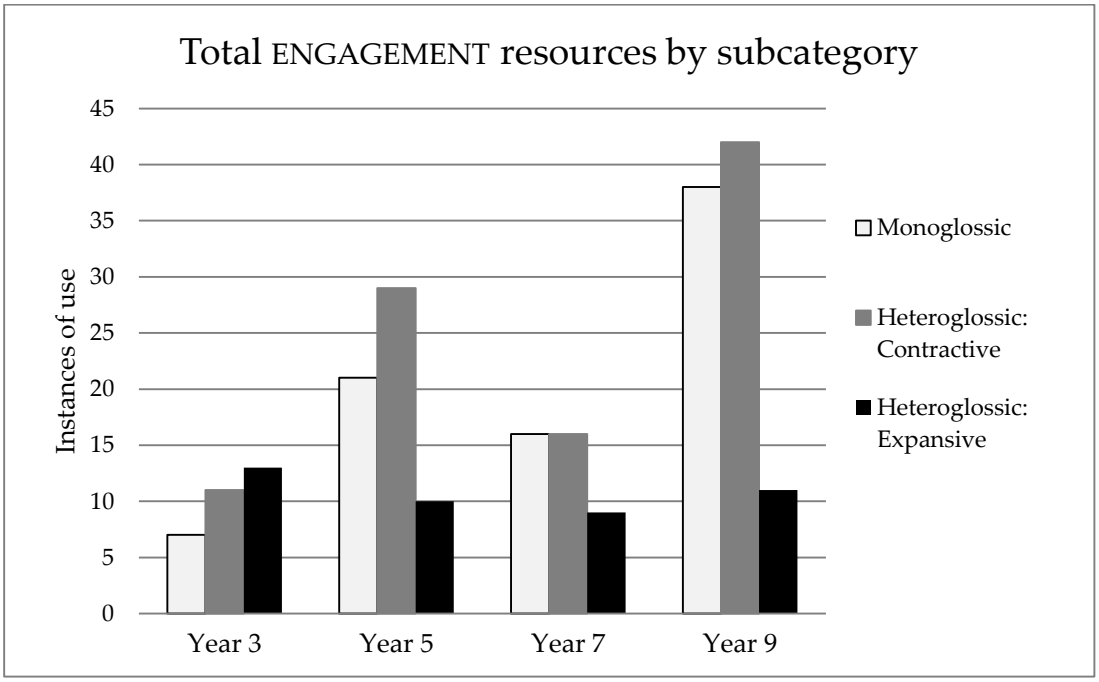

Figure 56. Total ENGAGEMENT resources by subcategory.

Table 59. Total ENGAGEMENT Resources by Subcategory

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total by subcategory
Monoglossic	7	21	16	38	82
Hetero: Contractive	11	29	16	42	98
Herero: Expansive	13	10	9	11	43
Total by year level	31	60	41	91	223
Repertoire	4/12	8/12	8/12	11/12	

A number of patterns are evident from these results. Firstly, the repertoire of ENGAGEMENT resources doubled from Year 3 (4/12) to Year 5 (8/12), remained constant at Year 7, and then increased to the highest point at Year 9 (11/12). Regarding monoglossic utterances, the overall frequency tripled from Year 3 (n=7) to Year 5 (n=21), decreased from Year 5 to Year 7 (n=16), and more than doubled from Year 7 to Year 9 (n=38), demonstrating that monoglossic utterances played an important role in all high scoring persuasive texts. In fact, monoglossic utterances were more prominent than dialogically expansive resources in all year levels aside from Year 3. The same pattern was evident for dialogically contractive resources, with the amount in Year 3 texts (n=11) nearly tripled in the Year 5 texts (n=29), then nearly halved in Year 7 (n=16), before increasing to the highest point in the Year 9 texts (n=42).

Contractive resources were more prominent than monoglossic utterances in all year levels apart from Year 7, where both categories were used 16 times. By comparison, the use of heteroglossic expansion was at its highest point in the Year 3 texts (n=13), where it outweighed the other subcategories. With each subsequent year level, the average word count increased, yet the use of expansion remained relatively consistent, resulting in an overall decrease in the proportion of expansive resources. As such, high scoring younger students tended to rely on dialogically expansive resources, while older students gradually increased their repertoire of monoglossic and contractive resources. Though expansive resources were used more sparingly by the older students, they used them to serve specific rhetorical purposes such as moderating dialogic space around the sides of arguments to make them easier or more difficult for readers to oppose.

7.4.5.1 - Monoglossic utterances by year level.

Table 60. Monoglossic Utterances by Year Level

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total by resource
Mono: Assert	7	21	15	33	76
Mono: Presume	0	0	1	5	6
Total by year level	7	21	16	38	82
Repertoire	1/2	1/2	2/2	2/2	

Monoglossic utterances played a key role in all high scoring persuasive texts. This mostly entailed the use of monoglossic assertions, which outweighed every other ENGAGEMENT resource in Year 5, Year 7 and Year 9. The primary school students did not demonstrate the use of monoglossic presumptions. One such utterance was evident in a Year 7 text, though this only became more prominent in the Year 9 texts (n=5).

7.4.5.2 - Heteroglossic expansion by year level.

Table 61. Heteroglossic Expansion by Year Level

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total by resource
ENTERTAIN	13	9	9	9	40
ATT: ACKNOWLEDGE	0	1	0	1	2
ATT: DISTANCE	0	0	0	1	1
Total by year level	13	10	9	11	43
Repertoire	1/3	2/3	1/3	3/3	

Of the 43 instances of dialogic expansion in the high scoring texts, 40 involved uses of ENTERTAIN. As indicated in the analyses of expansive resources for each year level, the high scoring students often moderated modal types and intensities to control the degree of dialogic space made available by uses of ENTERTAIN. Only the Year 9 texts featured all three expansive resources at least once, yet the proportion of expansive resources was lower than at any other year level when the higher average word count is considered. The use of

ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE and/or ATTRIBUTE: DISTANCE to respond to the 2011 NAPLAN prompt was extremely rare in high scoring texts, occurring once each in the Year 5 and Year 9 texts only. Potential explanations for this are be taken up in Chapter 8.

7.4.5.3 - Heteroglossic contraction by year level.

Table 62. Heteroglossic Contraction by Year Level

	Year 3	Year 5	Year 7	Year 9	Total by resource
DIS: DENY	4	5	1	10	20
DIS: COUNTER	0	7	0	10	17
CON: AFFIRM	0	3	2	5	10
CON: CONCEDE	0	0	0	1	1
REIN: PRONOUNCE	7	9	10	11	37
REIN: JUSTIFY	0	5	2	5	12
PRO: ENDORSE	0	0	1	0	1
Total by year level	11	29	16	42	98
Repertoire	2/7	5/7	5/7	6/7	

The repertoire of contractive resources increased from Year 3 (2/7) to Year 5 (5/7), remained consistent at Year 7, then increased to its highest point in Year 9 (6/7). All year levels featured the use of DISCLAIM: DENY and REINFORCE PRONOUNCE, suggesting these as important resources for high scoring students to draw on. The Year 7 texts were the only ones to feature PROCLAIM: ENDORSE,

while the Year 9 texts were alone in featuring CONCUR: CONCEDE. Regarding overall frequency, the Year 3 and Year 7 texts featured only a single contractive resource five or more times (i.e., PRONOUNCE), while the Year 5 texts featured four such resources and Year 9 texts featured five such resources. In this way, Year 5 and Year 9 students used a more balanced range of contractive resources than Year 3 and Year 7 students. This difference is further clarified with an examination of how persuasive genre choices impacted on the use of ENGAGEMENT resources.

7.4.5.4 - ENGAGEMENT choices and persuasive genre.

As explained by the analysis of persuasive genres: the Year 3 texts consisted of a hortatory exposition and an analytical exposition; the Year 5 texts included a discussion and a hortatory exposition; the Year 7 texts included two analytical expositions; and the Year 9 texts included a discussion and an analytical exposition. To understand how genre choices related to the use of ENGAGEMENT resources, the Year 5 and Year 9 texts – the only years to include discussions – were analysed according to the chosen genre.

Table 63. Year 5 and Year 9 ENGAGEMENT Choices by Persuasive Genre

	Year 5 Discussion	Year 5 Hortatory Exposition	Year 9 Discussion	Year 9 Analytical Exposition
Mono: Assert	6	15	11	22
Mono: Presume	0	0	3	2
ENTERTAIN	7	2	8	1
ATT: ACKNOWLEDGE	1	0	1	0
ATT: DISTANCE	0	0	0	1
DIS: DENY	2	3	2	8
DIS: COUNTER	6	1	6	4
CON: AFFIRM	0	3	0	5
CON: CONCEDE	0	0	1	0
REIN: PRONOUNCE	3	6	6	5
REIN: JUSTIFY	5	0	2	3
PRO: ENDORSE	0	0	0	0
Total by text	30	30	40	51
Repertoire	7/12	6/12	9/12	9/12

This table contrasts the frequency and repertoire of ENGAGEMENT resources used by Year 5 and Year 9 students who wrote discussions and expositions. Regarding the subcategories of ENGAGEMENT, students who wrote

discussions relied more strongly on expansive resources, while those who wrote expositions relied more strongly on monoglossic utterances, expanding dialogic space on just two occasions at each year level. A similar frequency and repertoire of contractive resources were used, regardless of the persuasive genre. Regarding specific resources, those discussion writers tended to use more ENTERTAIN, COUNTER and JUSTIFY, while expository writers tended to use more monoglossic utterances, DENY and AFFIRM. Regardless of the chosen genre, all students used PRONOUNCE multiple times, they almost never used DISTANCE or CONCEDE, and never used ENDORSE in the attempt to persuade readers. These findings have been depicted in the following figure:

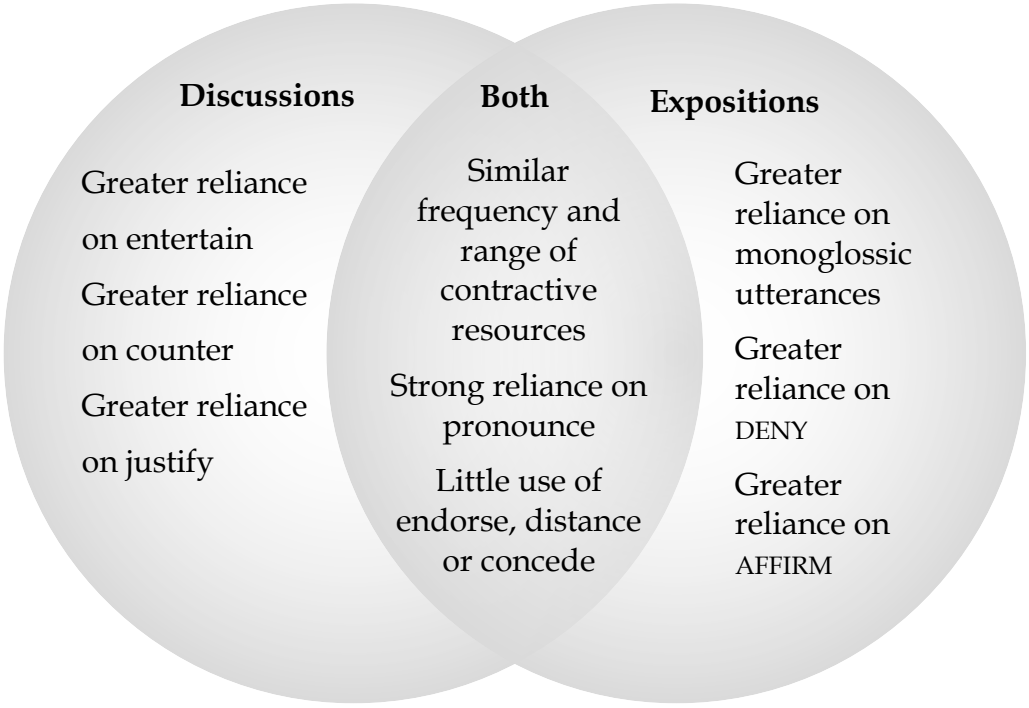

Figure 57. ENGAGEMENT choices by persuasive genre.

In addition to resources that characterised the persuasive genres, the analysis revealed a set of four core ENGAGEMENT resources that were used by all high scoring students. These core resources were monoglossic utterances, the contractive PRONOUNCE, the expansive ENTERTAIN and the contractive DENY. These four resources were used by the Year 3 students, and with each increase in year level, different combinations of monoglossic, contractive and expansive resources increased or altered the repertoire.

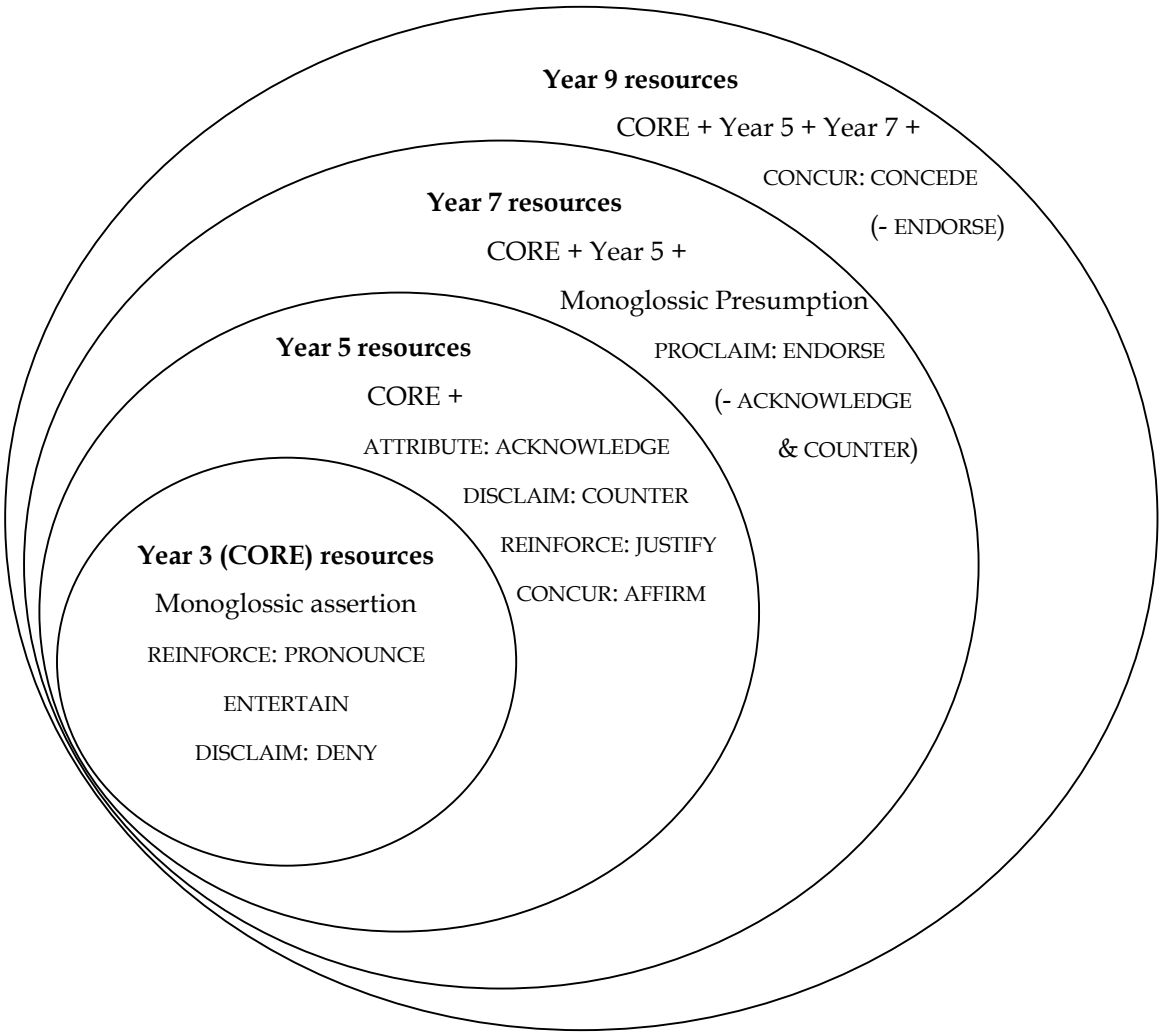

Figure 58. Repertoire of ENGAGEMENT resources across year levels.

The additive process represented in this figure indicates the increasing complexity of ENGAGEMENT choices made across year levels in one particular context. The final stage of the ENGAGEMENT analysis was to consider how high scoring students explicitly entered their texts through authorial intrusions.

7.4.5.5 - Authorial intrusion across year levels.

Aside from one Year 7 text, the high scoring texts rarely featured explicit authorial intrusions consistently throughout their arguments. Most authorial intrusion occurred during the introductory stages of texts only, as students directly disagreed with the prompt and established their thesis. The 2011 NAPLAN prompt featured questions, an idea and a command to position students to begin their texts with personal opinions on the topic:

> What do you think? Do you agree or disagree?
>
> Perhaps you can think of ideas for both sides of this topic.
>
> Write to convince a reader of your opinions.

Figure 59. Extract from 2011 NAPLAN prompt.

All high scoring students in Year 3, Year 5 and Year 7, began their texts by responding to this prompt directly. Their authorial intrusions are evident as follows:

Text extracts: Authorial intrusions at the Year 3, 5 and 7 levels

- Year 3.1: I definitely disagree with this statement
- Year 3.2: In my opinion I disagree, I am not in favour with this ridiculous concept. I am convinced that . . .
- Year 5.1: I strongly believe that we are not wasting money with them
- Year 5.2: Are you tired of sitting at home on the couch with nothing to do? Well I think I found the solution . . .
- Year 7.1: I would like to first and foremost state my opinion on what I consider to be a very important matter. I would like to argue . . .
- Year 7.2: I believe the statement "Too much money is spent on toys and games" is completely incorrect!

Yet despite the prompt's positioning, high scoring Year 9 students chose not to explicitly intrude into their texts to respond. Instead, they briefly summarised the issues surrounding the topic before clearly stating their position on the matter, regardless of their chosen persuasive genre:

Text extracts: Authorial intrusions at the Year 3, 5 and 7 levels

- Year 9.1: In Western society, a lot of hard-earned money is spent on buying toys and games to entertain us. Some people believe too much is spent on "petty" things such as these. There are arguments for both sides. Toys and games are . . .

- Year 9.2: Toys and games have been around for many centuries, going way back to the Ancient Egyptians when children used to play board games using loose stones and wooden blocks. Nowadays, people are starting to become worried that too much money is spent on toys and games. However, here are several reasons why this statement is incorrect: toys and games are . . .

In terms of ENGAGEMENT, the younger students relied on contractive resources to state their thesis or outline the issue, while Year 9 students relied on monoglossic assertions and presumptions to achieve the same purpose. The significance of this will be discussed in the next chapter. With the students' ENGAGEMENT choices unpacked, the last section of this chapter considers their use of figurative language.

7.5 - Analysis of Figurative Language Choices

7.5.1 - Year 3 Figurative Language Choices.

To determine their figurative language choices, the high scoring students' uses of figures of speech were analysed and interpreted (See Appendix 4 for full tables of figurative language analysis). Beginning with Year 3 students, this involved determining how they used schemes to alter the ordinary or expected structure of words within and across sentences, and tropes to alter the ordinary or expected meanings of words.

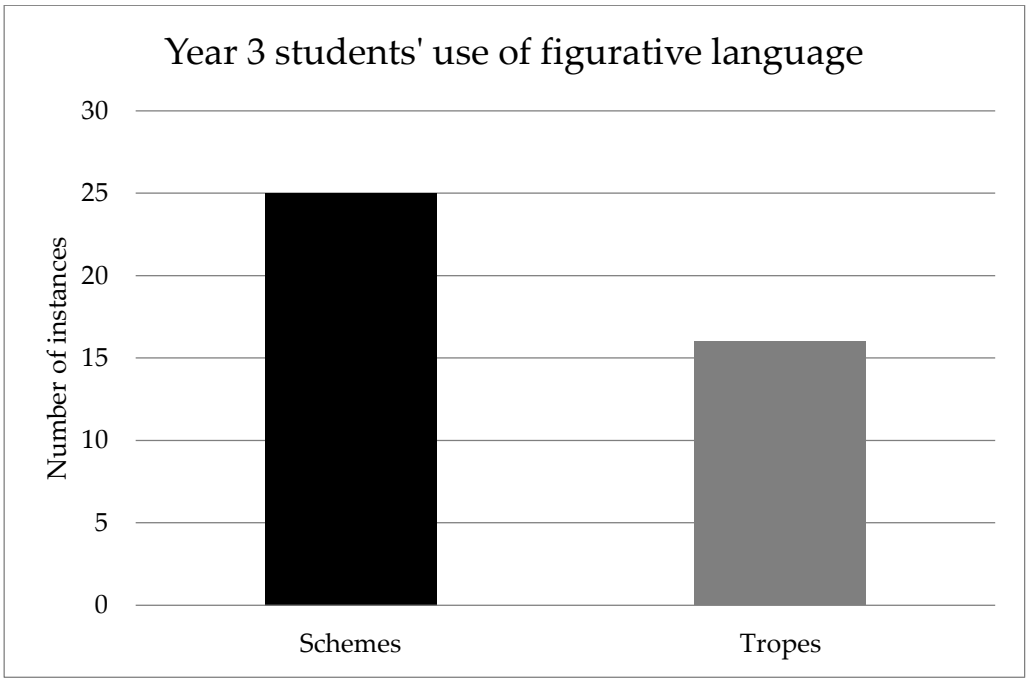

Figure 60. Year 3 figurative language choices.

Year 3 students deployed more schemes (n=25) in their persuasive texts than tropes (n=16), though both featured multiple times in each text, highlighting them as important aspects of the Year 3 texts overall. The analysis then considered the use of individual schemes and tropes.

7.5.1.1 - Year 3 figurative language choices: Schemes.

As outlined in Chapter 6, the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) leads markers to explicitly or implicitly assess the use of 20 figures of speech. Of these, 12 are schemes, including: alliteration; anadiplosis; anaphora; antithesis; assonance; climax; conduplicatio; epanalepsis; epistrophe; epizeuxis; parallelism; and polysyndeton. Each of these schemes

involves the repetition of some aspect of a clause or sentence. The analysis of Year 3 students' use of schemes is evident in the following figure and table:

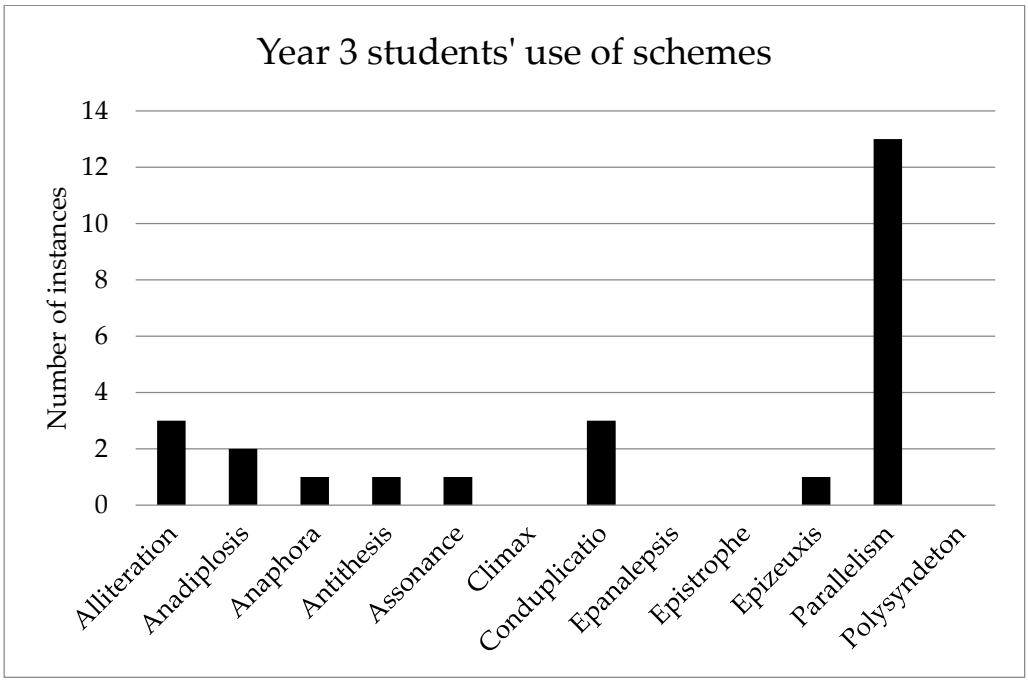

Figure 61. Year 3 figurative language choices: Schemes.

Year 3 students deployed parallelism (n=13) in their writing over four times as often as the next highest frequency schemes (n=3). Parallelism was deployed in each stage of the Year 3 texts, aside from the introductions:

Year 3 extracts: Parallelism

- . . . because of toys and games it's easier to <u>have family time</u> and <u>develop social skills</u>
- Without toys and games <u>the fun would be sucked out of the world</u> and <u>there would be no more entertainment</u>

- . . . because there would be no more fun, parents could get tired without them and they make people relax, we should still have toys and games

This scheme involves the "similarity of structure in a pair or series of related words, phrases or clauses . . . [and] is one of the basic principles of grammar and rhetoric" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 381). Writers use parallelism when they are "enumerating pairs or series of things," such as reasons to support or challenge an argument, and as such it was unsurprising that this was the most common scheme in the Year 3 texts (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 382). Following parallelism, the next most frequently deployed schemes included alliteration and conduplicatio (n=3). Alliteration involves the "repetition of initial or medial consonants in two or more adjacent words . . .[in order to] contribute to euphony of verse or prose" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 388-389), while conduplicatio involves "the repetition of a key word from a preceding phrase, clause, or sentence, at the beginning of the next," to highlight an important idea (Harris, 2003, p. 112). Despite their use, there was no clear evidence to suggest they were more commonly used at a particular stage in the persuasive texts:

Year 3 extracts: Alliteration

I definitely disagree . . .

Year 3 extracts: Conduplicatio

Because of toys and games it's easier to have family time and develop social skills. Family time will let children . . .

While other schemes were less commonly deployed by Year 3 students, eight of the possible 12 schemes featured in their texts at least once. Each stage of their arguments featured at least two figurative schemes, which served to alter the expected pattern of words for various rhetorical effects.

7.5.1.2 - Year 3 figurative language choices: Tropes.

Eight tropes were identified in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013), including: hyperbole; hypophora; irony; metaphor; personification; procatalepsis; rhetorical questions; and simile. In their high scoring texts, the Year 3 students deployed just two of the eight tropes:

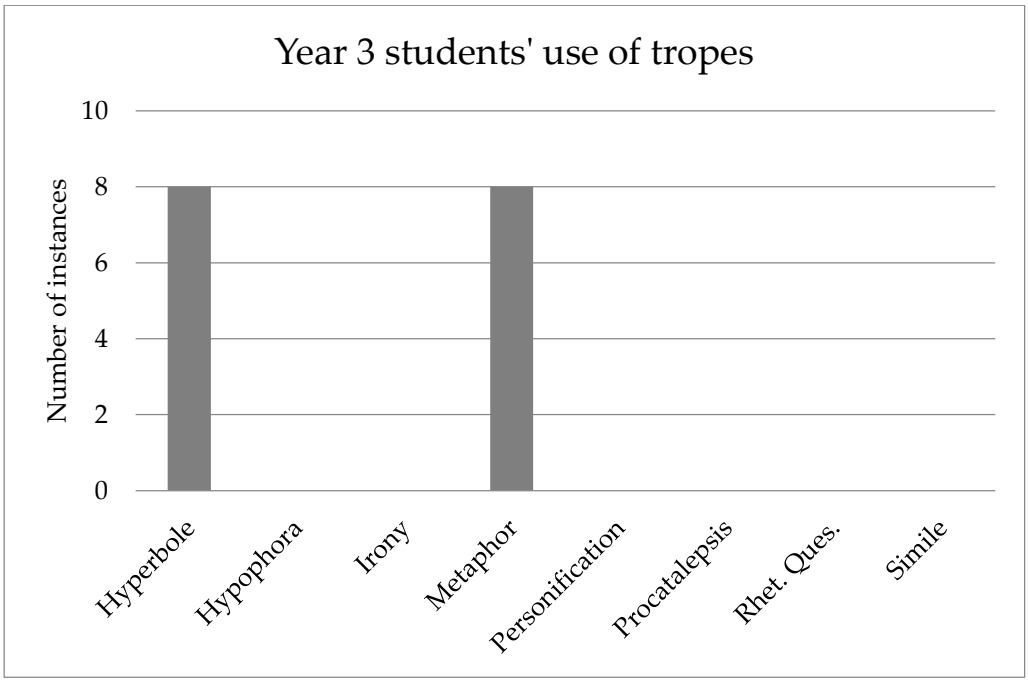

Figure 62. Year 3 figurative language choices: Tropes.

The students deployed hyperbole (n=8) and metaphor (n=8) an equal number of times. Hyperbole involves "the use of exaggerated terms for the purpose of emphasis or heightened effect" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 403), while metaphor involves making "an implied comparison between two things of unlike nature that yet have something in common" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 396).

Year 3 extracts: Hyperbole

- . . . everyone in the world liked toys and games at one point or another
- Without toys and games the fun would be sucked out of the world and there would be no more entertainment

- . . . without them the children's parents would be so tired because they spent all day suggesting things for their kids to do

Year 3 extracts: Metaphor

- . . . they will have to shut down completely
- . . . the fun would be sucked out of the world

While these tropes played an important role in adjusting expected meanings of words in the texts, the analysis highlighted the limited use of these rhetorical devices by Year 3 students.

7.5.1.3 - Summary of Year 3 figurative language choices.

In summary, Year 3 students deployed multiple figures of speech in each stage of their persuasive texts, consisting of 25 schemes and 16 tropes. Regarding repertoires of use, they deployed eight of the possible 12 schemes, yet only two of the possible eight tropes. Of the schemes, the students most commonly relied on parallelism (n=13), alliteration (n=3) and conduplicatio (n=3), while of the tropes, they relied only on hyperbole (n=8) and metaphor (n=8). Figurative language played a strong role in the Year 3 texts, though the students more commonly adjusted the structure of sentences rather than the meanings of words.

7.5.2 - Year 5 Figurative Language Choices.

The next stage of the analysis was to make visible how Year 5 students' used figurative language in their persuasive texts.

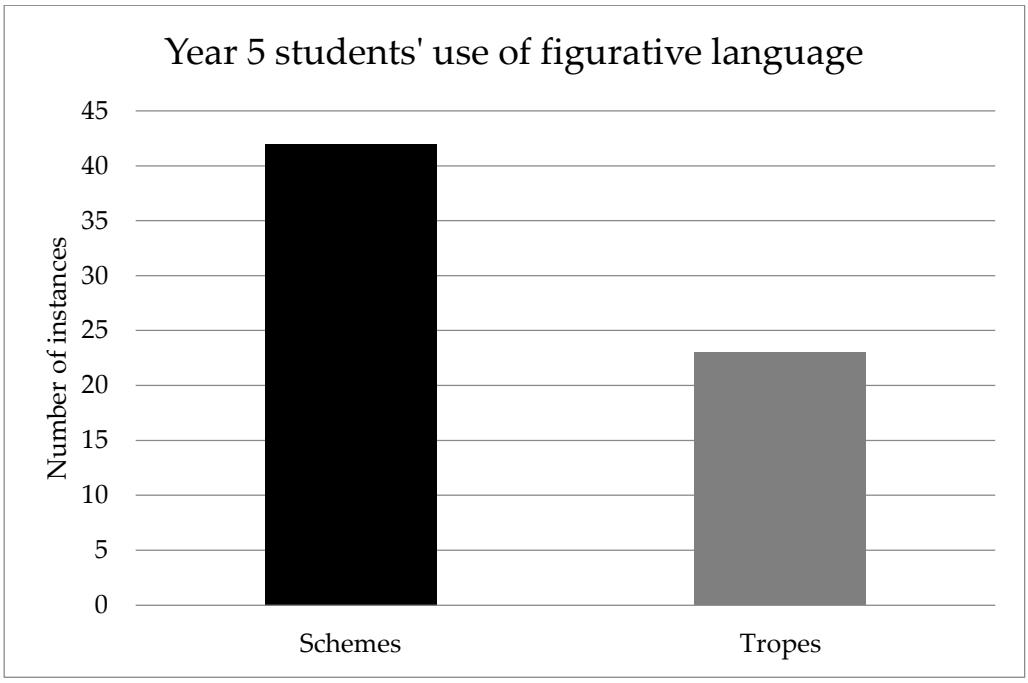

Figure 63. Year 5 figurative language choices.

Year 5 students deployed schemes and tropes more often than Year 3 students, yet the analysis indicated similar patterns of use for both years overall, with Year 5 students deploying schemes (n=42) nearly twice as often as tropes (n=23). Individual figures were considered to see how the repertoires were different in the older students' texts.

7.5.2.1 - Year 5 figurative language choices: Schemes.

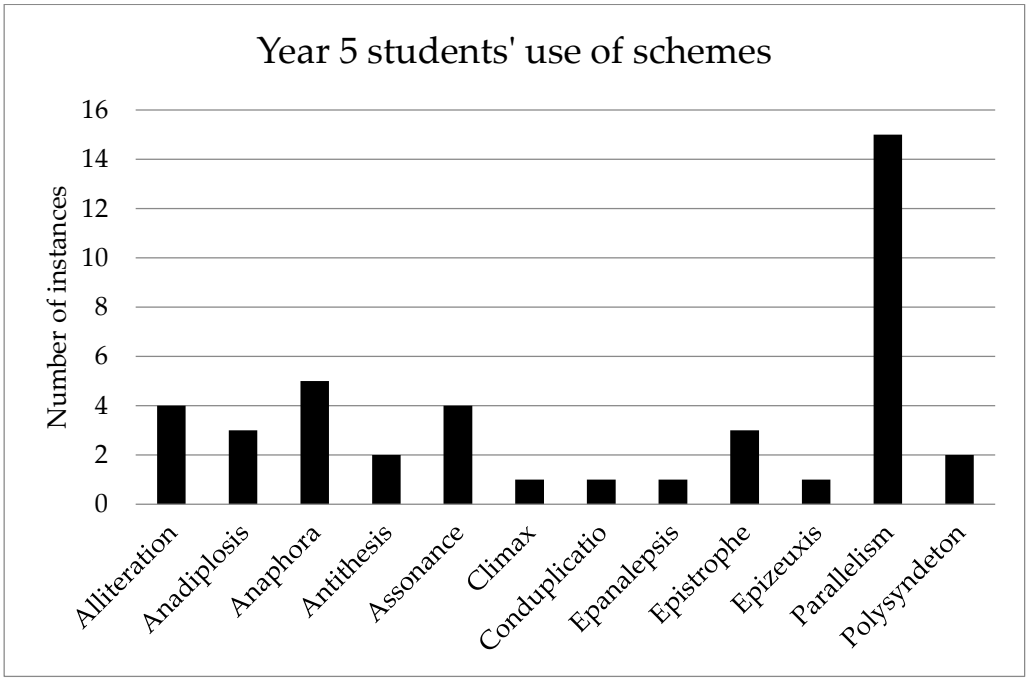

Figure 64. Year 5 figurative language choices: Schemes.

All 12 schemes mentioned explicitly or implied in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) featured in the Year 5 persuasive texts. The most commonly deployed scheme was parallelism (n=15):

Year 5 extracts: Parallelism

- It would help the charity to help people with disabilities and poor people
- Well if you're a child go and get that toy box and search for your favourite toy! If you're an adult, go and sneak into your child's toy box and play with your favourite doll

- So if you want something cheap, to see a smile on sick children's faces or want to be fit, not bored and happy go with toys and games

Following parallelism, the Year 5 students' most commonly used scheme was anaphora (n=5), which was featured once in the Year 3 texts. Anaphora involves a "repetition of the same word or group of words at the beginnings of successive clauses," in order to "produce a strong emotional effect" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 390-391). The Year 5 extract that featured in the ATTITUDE and ENGAGEMENT sections of this chapter has been presented below to exemplify its use of figurative language choices:

Year 5 extract: Figurative language

A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind, but this makes us curious, so we learn about cyclones (which has something to do with wind), but this even makes us more curious, so we learn about other natural disasters. It will make us go on and go on, learning.

The extract features five unique schemes to arrange structural elements in compelling and persuasive ways. To show this, the paragraph was divided into clauses and coded for instances of figurative language with a range of symbols and font styles:

Year 5 extract: Figurative language

A kite would be flying with *wind*,

so people will understand ***wind***,

but this makes us *curious*,

so we learn about **cyclones**

(which has something to do with *wind*),

but this even makes us more *curious*,

so we learn about **other natural disasters**.

It will make us go on and go on, learning.

The first of scheme – parallelism – is represented by bold brackets on the left side of the extract. The author's use of parallelism creates a back and forth pattern, as the reader gradually transitions from a kite flying with wind, to learning about natural disasters. The pattern is achieved by the parallel parts of each clause being similar in overall form, and simplifies the process of comprehension.

Two uses of another scheme – anaphora – are represented by unbroken underlining and dotted underlining. This repetition of phrases and meanings allowed the student to emphasise that people will learn and understand through the associated actions. As the student's argument was that toys and games can be educational, this emphasis provided by anaphora was crucial to the effectiveness of the paragraph.

The next scheme – epistrophe – is represented by italicised words at the ends of clauses. This scheme involves a "repetition of the same word or group of words at the ends of successive clauses . . . [to] secure a special emphasis" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 391). The student used epistrophe by repeating *wind* at the ends of three clauses, and *curious* at the ends of two clauses. The use of this scheme was important in connecting ideas presented as the author moved from the concrete notion of flying a kite, to the more abstract notion of learning about natural disasters. Integrating *wind* through the paragraph in this way reminds the reader about the starting point of the argument, and the repeated use of *curious* emphasises this as an ongoing process of growth, building from one level to the next.

The fourth scheme – climax – is represented in the extract by bolded words, and involves the repetition of parallel structures that are ordered in terms of importance, complexity, or power (Corbett & Connors, 1999). In this case, the kite flyer's learning begins with wind, increases in complexity with learning about cyclones, before building again with learning about other natural disasters. The author's use of this scheme emphasised the importance of playing with toys and games, as this will gradually build the extent of one's learning over time. A similar effect was achieved by the author's statement that learning makes you curious at first, yet more curious beyond this, producing a snowballing effect as the curiousness increases at each stage in the learning process.

The final scheme – epizeuxis – is represented by the wave underlining, and involves repetition of one or more words for emphasis (Harris, 2003). Here, the author concluded their paragraph with the statement: it (flying a kite) will make you go on and go on learning. The repetition of *go on* served to emphasise the back and forth process of learning and then becoming curious. With this use of schemes, the author's initial argument that toys and games can be educational evolved in its complexity to describe these items as catalysts of learning that intensify and become more powerful as they develop. Presenting the analysis of this paragraph through the ATTITUDE, ENGAGEMENT and figurative language lenses highlights the complex language choices of high scoring Year 5 students at the level of discourse.

7.5.2.2 - Year 5 figurative language choices: Tropes.

The next step in the analysis was to consider how Year 5 students deployed tropes in their texts. The following figure and table indicate the frequency and repertoire of tropes they deployed:

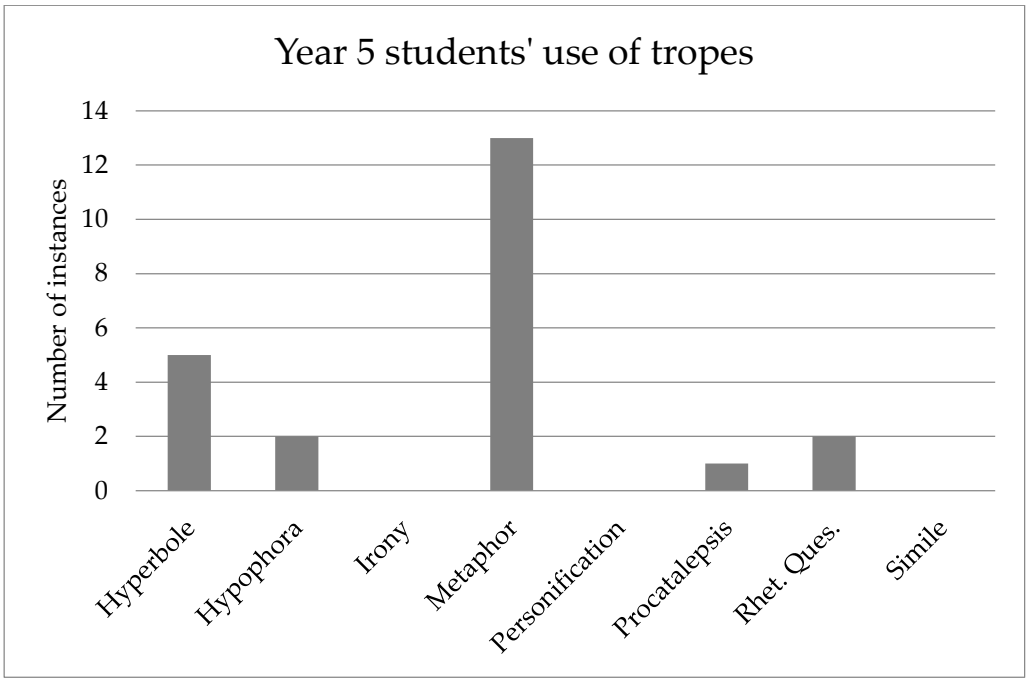

Figure 65. Year 5 figurative language choices: Tropes.

The only tropes used by Year 3 students (metaphor and hyperbole) were the two most commonly used by the Year 5 students. They did however also deploy hypophora (n=2), rhetorical questions (n=2) and procatalepsis (n=1), resulting in an overall repertoire of five tropes:

Year 5 extracts: Metaphor

- We are not wasting money
- . . . if we were going to buy one, we must think twice
- Laughter is the best medicine

Year 5 extracts: Hyperbole

- There are thousands of children around the world who suffer from cancer, heart failure, a rare disease or a serious illness that leaves them in hospital, bedridden for months/years
- To see a smile on a child who is sick is the best thing ever
- . . . go with toys and games. They really are the best thing ever for you, me and everyone!

Year 5 featured the first instances of rhetorical questions. These tropes involve "asking a question, not for the purpose of eliciting an answer, but for the purpose of asserting or denying something obliquely" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 404). The following example was deployed by a Year 5 student to begin an argument:

Year 5 extracts: Rhetorical question

Did you know that many people around the world sit on their couch bored? That's not a good way to spend your afternoons is it?

This rhetorical question positioned the reader to align with the author's view that this does not represent a good way to spend your afternoon. Combined with the other tropes, the Year 5 texts featured a wide range of figures that altered ordinary meanings in different ways. While outweighed by the number of schemes, at least one trope featured in every stage of the high scoring Year 5 persuasive texts.

7.5.2.3 - Summary of Year 5 figurative language choices.

The Year 5 students' figurative language choices were similar to those of the Year 3 students, with the favouring of schemes (n=42) over tropes (n=23), and the use of schemes in each stage of their arguments. The Year 5 choices were more complex though in a number of ways. First, they also deployed at least one trope in each stage of their persuasive texts. Second, their repertoire of schemes (12/12) and tropes (5/8) outweighed those of the younger students and allowed them to achieve a wider range of persuasive effects, as illustrated in the kite extract above.

7.5.3 - Year 7 Figurative Language Choices.

With the primary school texts analysed, the next stage of the analysis was to make visible the high scoring secondary school students' use of figurative language.

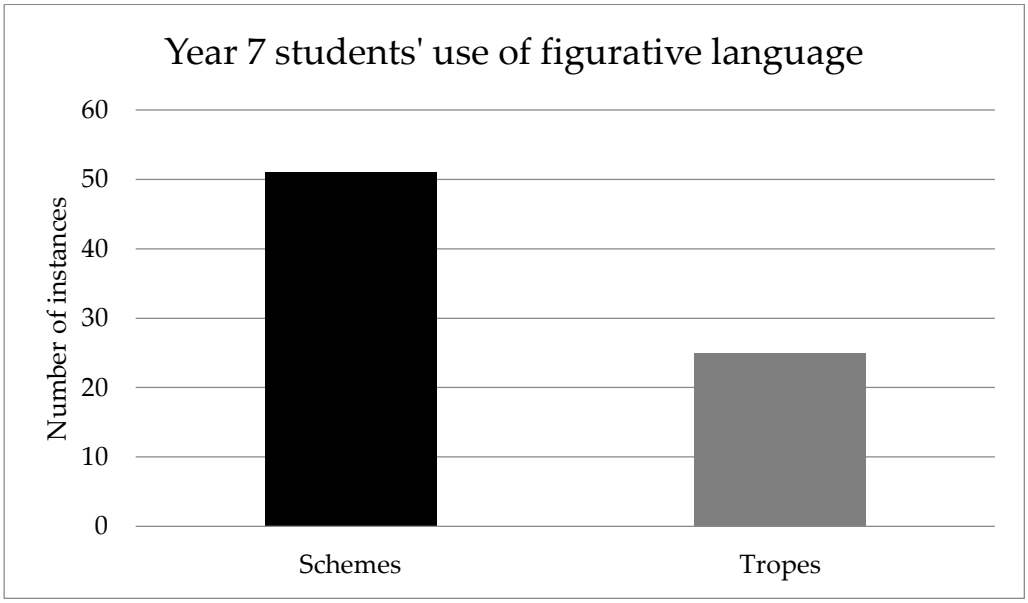

Figure 66. Year 7 figurative language choices.

As was the pattern in the primary school texts, the Year 7 texts featured schemes (n=51) considerably more often than tropes (n=25). The increased use of schemes was more apparent, with ten more schemes featured in the Year 7 texts. To discover more about this, the next step was to analyse the individual schemes and tropes used by the students.

7.5.3.1 - Year 7 figurative language choices: Schemes.

The Year 7 texts featured most types of schemes (10/12) at least once, making for a slightly lower repertoire than the Year 5 students (12/12), and a slightly higher repertoire than the Year 3 students (8/12). This is depicted in the following figure and table:

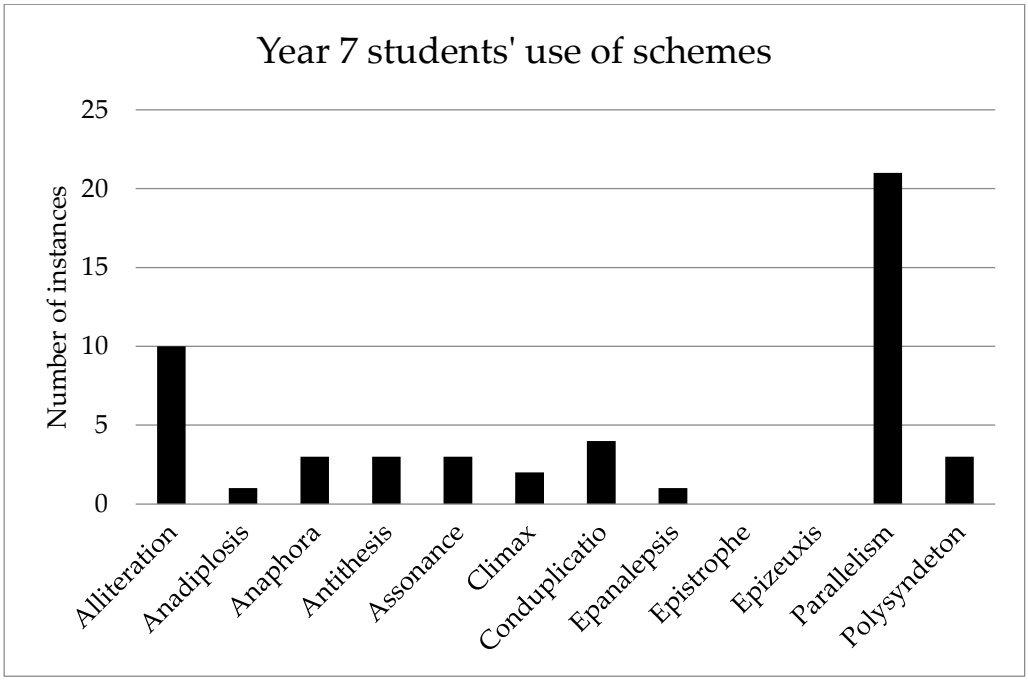

Figure 67. Year 7 figurative language choices: Schemes.

The most commonly deployed scheme was again parallelism (n=21), however Year 7 students also deployed alliteration (n=10) more than twice as often as the third highest frequency scheme, conduplicatio (n=4). Examples of parallelism and alliteration from the Year 7 texts are provided in the following extracts:

Year 7 extracts: Parallelism

- Games and toys have been proven to improve happiness, to be educational and to also let a child be active and physical
- . . . with happiness comes the senses of self-worth, high self-esteem and general love of life

Year 7 extracts: Alliteration

. . . wonder about their world . . . wonder how things work

Assonance, a scheme of sound, was deployed by the Year 7 students on three occasions. This scheme involves "the repetition of similar vowel sounds, preceded and followed by different consonants, in the stressed syllables of adjacent words," and is more typical of poetry than persuasive writing (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 389). Assonance can be used "to produce certain onomatopoetic or humorous effects," and should only be used sparingly in certain forms of argumentation (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 390):

Year 7 extracts: Assonance

> If parents can't be bothered to get their children toys or don't want to spend the money because they saw *that gorgeous new bag I just had to have*, stop and think what this will do to your child in the not-to-distant future.

In this extract, the student's strategic use of assonance over a few short words produces a humorous effect, followed directly by commands to stop and think of the repercussions of such actions. Irony, another trope, is also at play here, as the author provides a subtle wink to the reader as though they both realise parents do not really need that bag, however gorgeous. In this way, the reader is allowed to enjoy the humorous side of some parents' spending habits, before instantly being reminded of the seriousness of the issue and considering what is at stake.

7.5.3.2 - Year 7 figurative language choices: Tropes.

Following their use of schemes, the next stage in the analysis involved the consideration of how Year 7 students deployed tropes in their persuasive arguments. The analysis revealed that these students again relied greatly on hyperbole and metaphor, however their overall repertoire of tropes was greater than both primary school year levels:

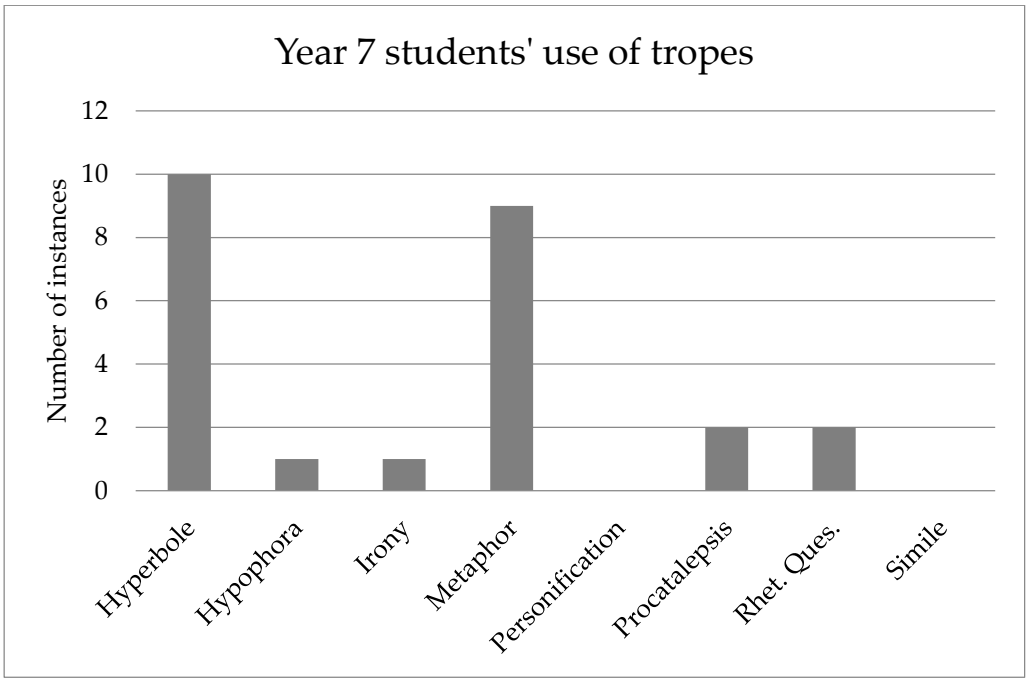

Figure 68. Year 7 figurative language choices: Tropes.

The analysis highlighted how Year 7 students deployed hyperbole (n=10) and metaphor (n=9) more than any other tropes, however they did deploy most tropes (6/8) at least once. One such trope – hypophora – involves "raising one or more questions and then proceeding to answer them . . . [to] maintain curiosity and interest" (Harris, 2003, p. 33). This trope was used twice by Year 7 students, and an example of is evident in the following extract:

Year 7 extracts: Hypophora

How will this affect them? Not letting children have toys is encouraging and basically asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom

Aside from the greater repertoire of tropes, Year 7 students also used certain tropes differently to the younger students. An example of this involved the use of rhetorical questions. In the Year 5 texts, rhetorical questions were only deployed at the beginnings of arguments, while in the Year 7 texts, they were deployed at the ends of arguments, as follows:

Year 7 extracts: Rhetorical question

So I ask you, reader/s. If toys help to educate, develop and enrich the lives of children; is it really that bad to spend some money on them?

This was the only rhetorical question in the first Year 7 student's text, yet was deployed to conclude their argument. In this way, the author's conclusion reinforced the key arguments to enhance the persuasive power of the question, before using it to explicitly link the arguments to the initial prompt. Without this rhetorical question, the student's arguments about the many benefits of toys and games would not explicitly respond to the NAPLAN prompt heading, highlighting this strategically deployed trope as powerful and necessary. A similar rhetorical question was posed by the second Year 7 student:

Year 7 extracts: Rhetorical question

Not letting children have toys is encouraging and basically asking for them to be overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom. Is that how you really want your child to turn out?

As with the first example, this question was posed to end the student's final argument, yet while the first focused on positive effects of playing with toys and games, the second focused on the negative effectives of not having access to these items.

7.5.3.3 - Summary of Year 7 figurative language choices.

Overall, Year 7 students continued the pattern established in the Year 3 and Year 5 texts by deploying schemes (n=51) more often than tropes (n=25). Although their repertoire of schemes (10/12) was slightly lower than the Year 5 students, the Year 7 students made use of almost all schemes at least once, and deployed them more frequently than the younger students. Regarding tropes, Year 7 students deployed a greater range (6/8) than Year 5 students (5/8), and the overall frequency (n=25) was slightly higher also. Most notable was their strategic use of tropes such as rhetorical questions at key stages of arguments, highlighting a more refined understanding of the time and position these rhetorical devices should be deployed.

7.5.4 - Year 9 Figurative Language Choices.

As all previous year levels deployed schemes more often than tropes, it was expected that this pattern would continue with the high scoring Year 9 persuasive texts:

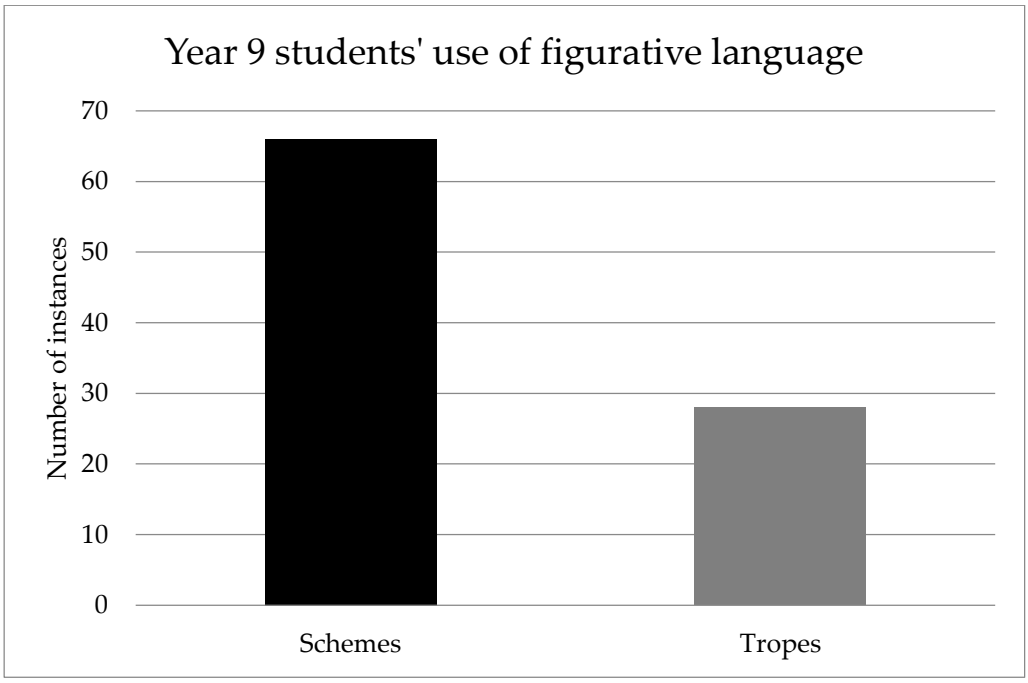

Figure 69. Year 9 figurative language choices.

As expected, Year 9 students deployed schemes (n=66) more often than tropes (n=28). To discover more about their use of these rhetorical devices, the next step in the analysis was to consider their use of the selected schemes.

7.5.4.1 – Year 9 figurative language choices: Schemes.

The Year 9 texts featured 11 of the 12 selected schemes, highlighting again how a broad range of these figures was a typical feature of high scoring texts across all the year levels. The only scheme that they did not deploy was epizeuxis, which featured in both primary school year levels, yet in no secondary school texts. The use of schemes in the high scoring Year 9 texts can be seen below:

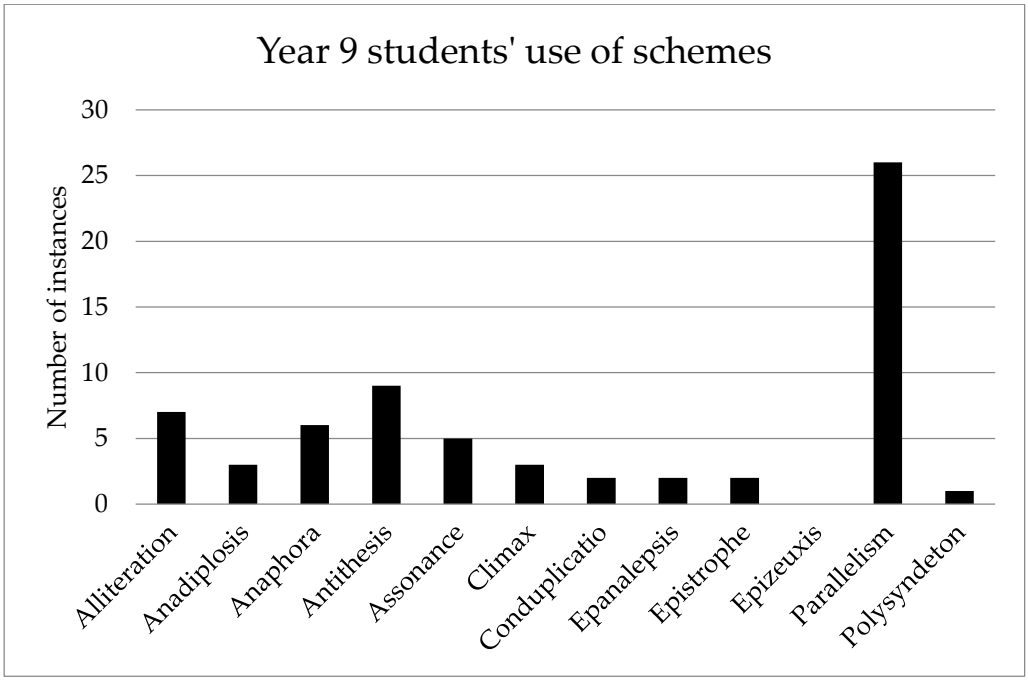

Figure 70. Year 9 figurative language choices: Schemes.

Again, parallelism (n=26) was the most deployed scheme by the Year 9 students. Following this, antithesis (n=9) was deployed considerably more than any other year level, while alliteration (n=7) and anaphora (n=6) continued to be popular choices. Antithesis involves "the juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, often in parallel structure . . . [to] produce the effect of aphoristic neatness and can win for the author a reputation for wit" (Corbett & Connors, 1999, p. 383):

Year 9 extracts: Antithesis

- . . . therefore games aren't just for fun, they can be constructive as well
- As countries like Australia live in luxury, places such as Timor live without even the bare necessities
- Toys may be fun, but education is vital

In each of these extracts, contrasting ideas are juxtaposed for different reasons. In the first, two features of toys and games are juxtaposed, emphasising them as beneficial in more than one way. In the second, a life of luxury in Australia is set against a life without bare essentials in Timor. This use of antithesis was important in setting up an argument in favour of the prompt heading, by positioning readers to think beyond the familiar and consider a more difficult existence in another country. The third and final use of antithesis powerfully contrasted toys that are *fun* with education that is *vital*, spelling out for the reader how they rated these notions on a scale of importance. In these and other ways, antithesis was used by Year 9 students to evaluate various phenomena positively and negatively, which highlights the complexity of figurative language choices made by the older students. Following their advanced use of schemes, the next step in the analysis was to consider their use of tropes in the attempt to persuade readers.

7.5.4.2 - Year 9 figurative language choices: Tropes.

With each increase in year level, high scoring students deployed a greater repertoire of tropes. Year 3 students deployed 2 of the possible eight tropes, Year 5 students deployed five, and Year 7 students deployed six. Compared to the similar repertoire of schemes deployed across the year levels, it was notable to find Year 9 students deployed the greatest range of tropes overall, with seven of the eight tropes deployed at least once in their texts:

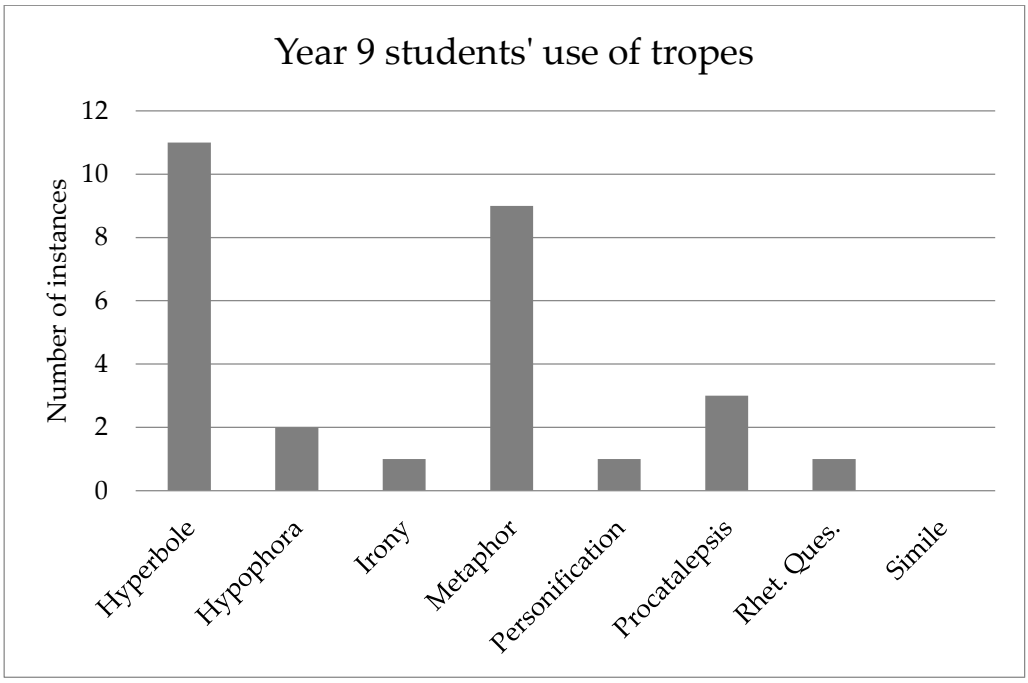

Figure 71. Year 9 figurative language choices: Tropes.

The most frequently deployed tropes by Year 9 students were hyperbole (n=11) and metaphor (n=9), followed by procatalepsis (n=3), which involves "anticipating an objection and answering it . . . [to] permit an argument to continue moving forward while taking into account points or reasons opposing either the train of thought or its final conclusion" (Harris, 2003, p. 30):

> *Year 9 extracts: Procatalepsis*
>
> And even though some might think, "They spend all their money on toys and games and not all the important things in life," remember, toys and games are educational, sporty, a major part of uniting families, and fantastic for businesses.

In this statement – which concluded the student's text – involved the insertion of an opposing argument simply to reinforce the pre-established reasons why such a view is incorrect. In this way, it was similar to the rhetorical questions posed by Year 7 students in how it summarised the arguments of the text while achieving additional rhetorical effects. The younger students' persuasive texts rarely or nevenr explicitly referred to or drew on opposing arguments, and even at the secondary school levels, this proved problematic. This issue is addressed in the following chapter.

7.5.4.3 - Summary of Year 9 figurative language choices.

Overall, Year 9 students deployed schemes (n=66) more than tropes (n=28), in the same way as all younger students. Year 9 students deployed all schemes apart from epizeuxis at least once, favouring the use of parallelism (n=26), antithesis (n=9) and alliteration (n=7). Their use of antithesis was particularly relevant in highlighting how older students often juxtaposed contrasting ideas for rhetorical purposes. Of all the texts, those written by Year 9 students featured the greatest repertoire of tropes (7/8). Hyperbole (n=11) and metaphor (n=9) were again the most commonly deployed overall, while Year 9 students also made use of procatalepsis (n=3) to explicitly draw opposing arguments into their texts to explain why their views were incorrect. As they deployed seven tropes to alter the ordinary or expected meanings of words in a variety of ways, the oldest students made the most complex figurative language choices overall.

7.5.5 - Figurative Language Choices across the Year Levels.

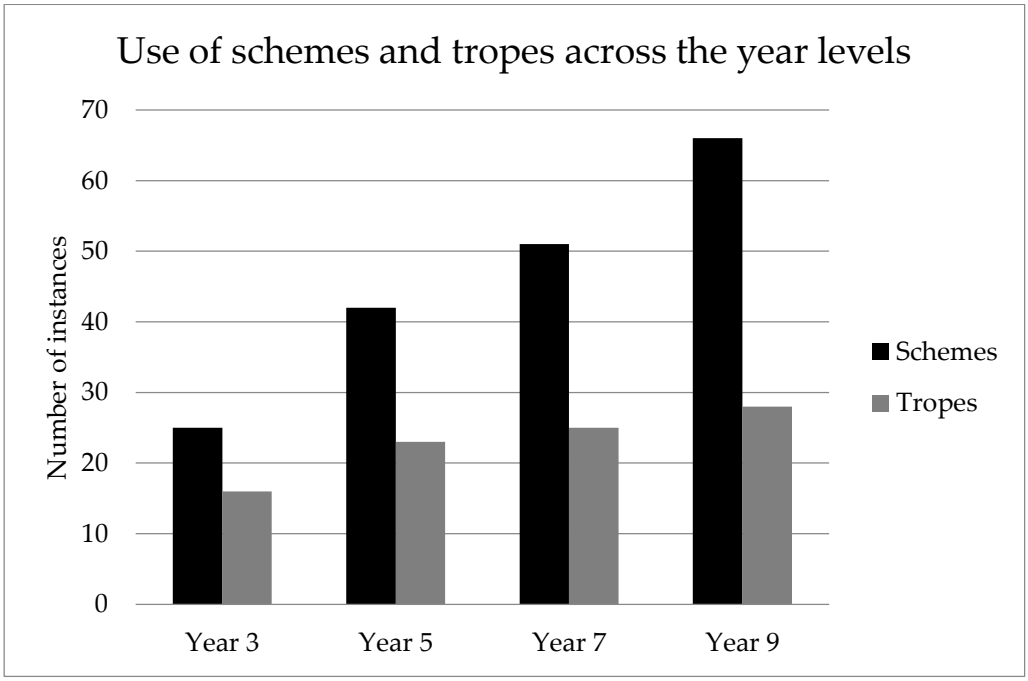

Figure 72. Use of schemes across the year levels.

Table 64. Use of Schemes across the Year Levels

Year level	Use of schemes	Use of tropes
Year 3	25	16
Year 5	42	23
Year 7	51	25
Year 9	66	28

The analysis of texts indicated that the frequency of schemes and tropes deployed by high scoring students increased gradually across year levels. The increase in the use of schemes was more pronounced than tropes, suggesting that their frequency was more closely linked to the average word counts for

each year level. From Year 3, the high scoring students deployed a wide range of schemes, with most of the 12 selected schemes featured in all analysed texts. By comparison, the increase in tropes was less pronounced, particularly between Years 5 and 9, however the manner with which students used tropes developed considerably across year levels. While Year 3 students only deployed hyperbole and metaphor, each increase in year level featured a greater range of tropes, to a point where seven distinct tropes were deployed by Year 9 students to alter the ordinary meanings of words in various ways for various rhetorical purposes. These results highlight the uses of schemes and tropes as important features of the high scoring persuasive texts.

7.6 - Chapter Summary

To respond to the second research question, this chapter unpacked high scoring Tasmanian students' persuasive genre and language choices with five analytical lenses. Combined, these lenses provide a rich picture of the complex choices made by these students as they attempted to persuade unknown readers. As they were awarded the highest scores, their genre and language choices were highly valued by the NAPLAN markers, and thus represented the sorts of choices required for success in that particular context.

Section 7.2 unpacked the students' genre choices at each year level. After the Year 5 and Year 9 sections, summaries of primary school and secondary school genre choices were provided, followed by an overall summary of genre

choices for all year levels. These summaries can be found on the following pages:

- Summary of primary school genre choices: Page 228
- Summary of secondary school genre choices: Page 242
- Summary of genre choices overall: Page 244

Following this, Section 7.3 unpacked the students' choices of attitudinal resources. This involved the analysis of each year level's use of resources from the three attitudinal subcategories, their use of positive and negative evaluations, and their use of inscribed and invoked meanings. Summaries of their language choices regarding ATTITUDE can be found on the following pages:

- Summary of Year 3 ATTITUDE choices: Page 255
- Summary of Year 5 ATTITUDE choices: Page 265
- Summary of Year 7 ATTITUDE choices: Page 275
- Summary of Year 9 ATTITUDE choices: Page 284
- Summary of ATTITUDE choices across the year levels: Page 285
- Analysis of invoked meanings in Year 3 and Year 9 texts: Page 291

The chapter then focused on analysing the students' ENGAGEMENT choices in Section 7.4. This involved broadly unpacking their use of ENGAGEMENT resources in the three main subcategories, their use of dialogically expansive and contractive resources, before a summary for each year level. The development of ENGAGEMENT use across year levels was detailed, in addition to

use of monoglossic utterances. The section ended with an outlines of how ENGAGEMENT use varied according to persuasive genres choices, and how authorial intrusion occurred at each year level. Summaries for each aspect of this section can be found as follows:

Section 7.5 focused on the high scoring students' use of figurative language. It involved making visible how each year level used figures of speech, then broke these down into specific schemes and tropes that are listed or implied in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013). The section concluded with descriptions how figurative language choices changed across year levels. Summaries for these aspects of the section can be found as follows:

The following chapter discusses these findings in relation to the body of literature outlined in Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

8 - Discussion

8.0 - Introduction

In the previous chapter, high scoring students' persuasive texts were analysed to make visible their persuasive genre and language choices. This chapter discusses their choices in relation to the bodies of literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, across five main sections:

- Section 8.1 discusses high scoring students' genre choices, focusing on how they followed the forms of persuasive discourse and school-based persuasive genres in the attempt to persuade readers. This section also discusses how the students avoided structural constraints of the NAPLAN prompt, and constructed their texts from first, second and third person perspectives to respond directly to the prompt and align themselves with their intended audience;
- Section 8.2 discusses the students' flexible use of attitudinal resources to evaluate phenomena central to the NAPLAN prompt in a variety of ways. This section discusses the roles of invocation and prosodies of evaluative meanings in the students' texts, linking these choices to literature from tertiary education and media studies;
- Section 8.3 discusses the students' use of ENGAGEMENT resources to position readers to side with their perspective on the issue. Special interest is given to students' increasing reliance on monoglossic

utterances at subsequent year levels, and to comparing the range and balance of ENGAGEMENT choices from Years 3 to 9;

- Section 8.4 discusses the students' use of figurative language choices to alter the ordinary structure and meaning of words in sentences for rhetorical purposes. It highlights how figurative language choices were more complex in secondary school to reflect valued choices made in higher levels of education;
- Section 8.5 discusses further contributions of the present study to the field, making links between the theoretical perspectives of classical rhetoric and SFL. This occurs at a broad conceptual level, before focusing on specific links between rhetorical principles and systems networks.

A summary of high scoring students' language choices is provided at the end of each section.

8.1 - Persuasive Genre Choices

The analysis of high scoring students' persuasive genre choices suggests markers of the 2011 NAPLAN test valued:

- Texts at all year levels that closely followed the staging of the school based persuasive genres
- Texts at all year levels that structured arguments into separate paragraphs

- Texts at all year levels that summarised their main arguments in concluding stages
- Texts at all year levels that followed the form of persuasive discourse emphasised in the prompt wording (though students could freely base arguments on any range of special topics)
- Texts at all year levels that featured higher semantic ranges of abstract and concrete meanings
- Secondary school texts that constructed concluding paragraphs in second person to enhance audience alignment

These valued choices are now discussed with reference to the scholarly sources introduced in Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

8.1.1 - School-Based Persuasive Genres.

The wording of the 2011 NAPLAN prompt was sufficiently open to allow students to respond in any one of the three school-based persuasive genres and be successful. As a result, each analysed text clearly followed the staging of a school-based persuasive genre, and the final sample featured a variety of hortatory expositions, analytical expositions and discussions. The NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) required markers to specifically assess the structure of students' persuasive texts, and thus high scoring texts may not have been assessed as highly if they did not conform to the staging of a genre. In addition, Coffin's (2004) research suggested that

examiners are often predisposed to persuasive texts that conform to clear text structures, as this is a valued aspect of argumentation in adult writing.

Beyond the staging of school-based persuasive genres, Humphrey's (1996) research provided further insight into what distinguishes more and less advanced persuasive texts in school settings. For instance, more advanced expositions tend to separate arguments for a thesis into paragraphs, and provide summaries of the thesis and arguments in the concluding stage of the text (Humphrey, 1996). The analysis indicated that regardless of year level, high scoring students separated their arguments into paragraphs and supported claims with summaries of arguments in the final stages of their texts. Examples from each year are presented to highlight such summaries:

Year 3 extract: Summary of arguments

Therefore because there would be no more fun, parents could get tired without them and they make people relax, we should still have toys and games.

Year 5 extract: Summary of arguments

So if you want something cheap, to see a smile of sick children's faces or want to be fit, not bored and happy go with toys and games. They really are the best thing ever for you, me and everyone!

Year 7 extract: Summary of arguments

So I ask you, reader/s. If toys help to educate, develop and enrich the lives of children; is it really that bad to spend some money on them?

Year 9 extract: Summary of arguments

Toys and games are educational, sporty, a major part of uniting families, and fantastic for businesses. But most importantly, they create happiness for your children in EVERY aspect. Therefore we can undoubtedly say, without hesitation, that NOT too much money is spent on toys and games.

As shown in these extracts, the sorts of structural choices that characterise more advanced expositions (Humphrey, 1996) were made by all high scoring students, even those in Year 3.

8.1.2 - Three Forms of Persuasive Discourse.

The 2011 NAPLAN prompt began with the statement that too much money is being spent on toys and games. According to the rhetorical principles of Invention, to successfully address matters of the present, arguments should be consistent with the special topics of epideictic discourse (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004). Yet the prompt wording beneath this statement positioned students to construct deliberative texts, by juxtaposing the advantages brought by toys and games (i.e., the topic of the advantageous), with the spending of money on more important things (i.e., the topic of the unworthy) (Aristotle, 322

B.C./2004). In addition, nine of the ten prompt images depicted children having fun, thinking and exercising with toys (i.e., the advantageous), while the final image depicted toys in a rubbish bin (i.e., the unworthy). Despite some conflict between the statement and remaining wordings, the prompt positioned students to focus on the deliberative question of whether it is more or less beneficial to partake in one or another future activity (Porter & Ulbricht, 1996), namely the continued spending of money on toys and games.

All high scoring texts were deliberative in nature, yet they differed considerably in their use of special topics from each form of persuasive discourse. While they were positioned to use two topics of deliberative discourse, high scoring students constructed a wide range of deliberative and judicial arguments. The variance between both Year 9 texts highlights how students could focus on as little as two topics from a single form of discourse, or on a wide range of topics from multiple forms of discourse and still score highly. The eight texts attempted to persuade readers in different ways, combining various positive and negative aspects of the issue. According to Corbett and Connors (1999), the topics writers base arguments on largely depends on the nature of the subject and the audience they are trying to persuade. The 2011 NAPLAN prompt clearly outlined the subject matter being argued, leading students to construct largely deliberative texts, however did not establish a known audience for the students to attempt to persuade, limiting their ability to establish high levels of solidarity with a specific person. Students

therefore constructed their own ideal audience, catering for their needs with any combination of topics. This helps to explain the diversity of arguments across all high scoring texts. As no audience was established in the prompt, the topics students based their arguments on were less important than their ability to demonstrate they could create a persuasive text with particular structural and linguistic features.

8.1.3 - Constraints of the NAPLAN Prompt.

As the 2011 NAPLAN test required students to respond to the same prompt, regardless of their year level, it limited all students to consider the topic in everyday, concrete ways. As outlined in Chapter 3, the process of schooling involves transitioning students from literacy practices of the everyday domain that typify childhood, to practices of the technical, specialised and critical domains that are valued in the adult world (Macken-Horarik, 1996). At eight years of age, children in Year 3 are still largely unfamiliar with language practices of higher domains, and as such, writers of the NAPLAN test were forced to construct a prompt that was accessible to all students by featuring concrete wordings and images from the everyday domain, such as having fun with toys and using them for exercise. As all students who completed the test were required to respond to the same prompt, the NAPLAN test constrained all thinking on the topic to the everyday domain. Despite this, the most successful students at each year level, were those who could also base arguments on a range of abstract concepts.

At the primary school levels, Year 3 students wrote about abstract notions such as supporting the economy; creating a much needed sense of belonging; and depicted a world without entertainment as both miserable and desolate. Abstract thinking also occurred in Year 5, with students outlining how something as simple as flying a kite can lead to complex cycles of learning about the weather, cyclones, and other natural disasters. These students wrote about fostering a better world; the complex process of fat burning into energy during exercise; and the health benefits of laughter. At the secondary school levels, Year 7 students wrote about providing young people with escapes from the stressful realities of growing up; the abstract concepts of love, respect, and appropriate behaviours in Australian society; the process of instilling in children a sense of wonder about the world for the sake of exploration and understanding; and the enhancement of self-worth, self-esteem and a general love of life. Lastly, Year 9 students wrote about the allocation of money for the development of poorer countries or societal institutions such as health or education; the advancement of strategy, tactics, logic and probability skills through board games; the promotion of positive mental health; and the link between the monetary status of toy shops and a child's happiness or sadness.

High scoring students were able to use the constrained prompt wording and images as a starting point to consider the topic, yet expanded this view with abstract thinking to construct complex arguments. Requiring all students to respond to the same prompt may not have been problematic for Year 3 students

who were assessed at a relatively low standard, yet students in Years 5, 7 and 9 could only receive high scores by demonstrating literacy practices from higher domains of learning, such as the specialised and critical.

8.1.4 - First, Second and Third Person Perspectives.

The analysis of high scoring students' genre choices provided the opportunity to unpack how they constructed their texts in first, second and third person perspectives. As discussed in the review of the literature, Martin (1985) suggested it is more appropriate to write hortatory expositions in first person, and more appropriate to write analytical expositions in third person, yet the analysis indicated that all Year 3, Year 5 and Year 7 texts featured the use of first person authorial intrusions in their introductory stages. At the primary school levels, both Year 3 hortatory expositions were written in third person after these authorial intrusions in their introductions, while the single Year 5 hortatory exposition was mostly written in second person, with some instances of first and third person throughout. By contrast, one Year 7 student's analytical exposition was written mainly in third person, though featured authorial intrusions in its introduction, while the other differed in featuring authorial intrusion at the beginning of almost every stage. Following these intrusions, the student's arguments were written in third person, while the conclusion featured a shift to second person, as the author involved the audience directly for the first time. This audience involvement was more pronounced in the single Year 9 analytical exposition, as most stages began in the third person to outline aspects of the

issue, before shifting to second person to directly involve their imagined audience and establish points of solidarity with them, as in the following extracts:

Year 9 extract: Writing in the second person for audience involvement

- Would you want your family to be arguing and constantly fighting because there is nothing to bring the family together?
- . . . think of the sadness your child might have because his favourite toy shop (e.g., Toyworld) has been shut down? For the sake of your child's happiness, spend money on toys and games to keep these shops alive.
- . . . they create happiness for your children in EVERY aspect.

According to Coffin and Hewings (2004), "academic argument has been seen as taking place within a rhetorical framework which highlights objective detachment and minimizes authorial intrusion. The apparent objectivity is achieved through careful lexical, grammatical and discoursal courses" (Coffin & Hewings, 2004, p. 169). As first person authorial intrusions featured in the introductions of every text written below Year 9, the high scoring texts did not necessarily always match the persuasive genre conventions outlined by Martin (1985). In this context, more subjective, authorial intrusions were deemed appropriate at certain stages by the markers who scored these texts highly. Students wrote in first person to directly respond to the NAPLAN prompt, yet

the arguments that followed were more often than not written in third person, regardless of genre. At the upper year levels, students constructed key aspects of their arguments in second person, boosting audience involvement by relating a range of positive or negative phenomena to readers explicitly, and establishing points of solidarity by aligning themselves with their intended respondents for the sake of persuasiveness (White, 2001). This supports the research of Christie and Derewianka (2008), who found that primary and secondary school students often vary their use of perspective depending on the purpose of the text they are writing.

As outlined in the previous chapter, most high scoring texts featured at least some authorial intrusions to construe the students as authorities on the topic, and to respond directly to the NAPLAN prompt wording. Coffin and Hewings (2004) described the use of authorial intrusions as "a more favoured orientation in novice academic argumentation" (p. 167), which may help to explain why the Year 9 students managed to respond to the prompt without subjective authorial intrusions.

A summary of high scoring students' valued genre choices across year levels is presented in the following table:

Table 65. Summary of Valued Genre Choices across Year Levels

	Year 3: 8-9 yrs (early childhood – late childhood)	Year 5: 10-11 yrs (late childhood – early adoles.)	Year 7: 12-13 yrs (early adoles. – mid adoles.)	Year 9: 14-15 yrs (mid adoles.)
Genre choices: Variable	The following genre choices varied across year levels: **Less** ⟷ **More** Proportion of discussions per year level.			
	Less ⟷ **More** Likelihood of mixing forms of persuasive discourse during paragraphs.			
	Less ⟷ **More** Use of specific forms of persuasive discourse at key points in paragraphs for powerful rhetorical effects.			
	More ⟷ **Less** Authorial intrusion.			
Genre choices: Constant	The following genre choices were evident across all year levels: • High scoring texts followed the staging of school-based persuasive genres. • High scoring texts featured arguments that were split into paragraphs and summarised in a conclusion. • High scoring texts featured arguments based on concrete and abstract notions, despite the prompt's focus on the concrete. • High scoring texts featured arguments that were largely deliberative in nature. • Expository texts were evident across all year levels.			

8.2 - The Use of Attitudinal Resources

The analysis of high scoring students' attitudinal choices suggests markers of the 2011 NAPLAN test valued:

- Texts at all year levels that featured a wide range of attitudinal resources from each subcategory
- Primary school texts that featured invoked attitudinal meanings more readily than inscribed meanings
- Secondary school texts that more commonly invoked attitudinal meanings by flagging and provoking them, rather than simply affording them
- Texts at all year levels that established prosodies of positive meanings, and texts that established complex blends of positive and negative prosodies

8.2.1 - The Flexible Use of Attitudinal Resources.

According to Christie and Derewianka (2008), the general expectation for the use of attitude by early childhood students (6-8 years old) involves "mainly simple affect" (p. 221), while those in the late childhood-early adolescence phase (9-12 years old) possess a greater ability to use a range of attitudinal resources. The approximately 8 year old Year 3 students who scored highly on the 2011 NAPLAN test demonstrated the ability to use a wide range of attitudinal resources from each subcategory in the attempt to persuade readers, as outlined in this section.

The analysis of high scoring texts revealed attitudinal resources of appreciation and judgement were the most prominently used by all year levels, as the students usually evaluated toys and the people who buy and play with them positively. While another prompt that emphasised other phenomena would likely lead students to use a different combination of attitudinal resources, the analysis highlighted that even at the Year 3 level, students who scored highly on the 2011 NAPLAN test were those who used a wide range of attitudinal resources, focusing most strongly on particular subcategories that served their rhetorical purposes. High scoring Year 3 students in the present study demonstrated the ability to use attitudinal resources that typify the late childhood-early adolescence phase, despite their age (Christie & Derewianka, 2008). Though their use of resources from each subcategory varied according to the position they argued, one common finding in the attitudinal choices of all high scoring students was their considerable use of invocation.

8.2.2 - The Role of Invocation.

While research into academic writing (Hood, 2006, 2010, 2012) and media studies (White, 2006; Mugumya, 2013) highlighted the crucial role played by invoked ATTITUDE in these contexts, the use of invocation by primary and secondary writers of persuasive texts has not yet been explored in the literature. The present study revealed that invocation was a crucial aspect of all high scoring texts, and represented a more important language choice than the use of any specific set of attitudinal resources, which would likely vary by context. The

high scoring students' use of invoked attitudinal meanings outweighed inscribed meanings at all year levels, allowing them to implicitly evaluate phenomena and appear more objective in their writing (White, 2006). Yet at higher year levels, the analysis found students flagged and provoked these invoked attitudinal meanings more than their younger counterparts, a strategy often used in hard news to implicitly judge people's behaviour via association and implication (Thomson & White, 2008). Here are two examples of flagged and provoked attitudinal meanings from Year 9 texts:

> *Year 9 extract: Invoked ATTITUDE - Flagging*
> As countries like Australia live in luxury, places such as Timor live without even the bare necessities.

> *Year 9 extract: Invoked ATTITUDE - Provoking*
> Donating to causes such as this . . . could make a world of difference to a family who needs the money much more than you do.

With invoked meanings being prevalent in the students' texts, this finding highlights how choices around the three types of invoked meanings was a key differentiator between the high scoring primary and secondary school texts. As these texts were highly scored and valued for their language choices, it is important for all students to be aware of the rhetorical power of invocation, from as early as Year 3.

8.2.3 - Prosodies of ATTITUDE.

The analysis of high scoring texts revealed that one student from each year level evaluated phenomena positively on most occasions, leading to the formation of positive prosodies throughout their persuasive texts. Alternatively, the other four texts demonstrated more complex blends of positive and negative prosodies, as students evaluated multiple aspects of the issue in different ways. This blending was not constrained to particular school-based persuasive genres, as it occurred across each genre and each year level, even Year 3.

At the tertiary level, Lee (2006) found that high scoring texts were those that featured such complex configurations of positive and negative ATTITUDE values, while low graded texts were prosodically realised with mostly negative ATTITUDE values. If the four high scoring texts that established mainly positive prosodies were written at the tertiary level, Lee's (2006) research suggests they may struggle to be graded highly, as they lack the complex configurations that characterise valued language choices at the tertiary level. Alternatively, as four texts featured blends of positive and negative prosodies, this demonstrates that even at Year 3 students who succeed are able to establish such complex configurations of meaning.

A summary of high scoring students' valued ATTITUDE choices across year levels is presented in the following table:

Table 66. Summary of Valued ATTITUDE Choices across Year Levels

	Year 3: 8-9 yrs (early childhood – late childhood)	Year 5: 10-11 yrs (late childhood – early adoles.)	Year 7: 12-13 yrs (early adoles. – mid adoles.)	Year 9: 14-15 yrs (mid adoles.)
ATTITUDE choices: Variable	The following ATTITUDE choices varied across year levels: **Less** **More** Frequency and repertoire of JUDGEMENT resources per text.			
	Less **More** Frequency of APPRECIATION resources per text.			
	Less **More** Frequency of positive evaluations of APPRECIATION.			
	Less **More** Frequency of positive evaluations of JUDGEMENT.			
	Less **More** Afforded and provoked attitudinal meanings per text.			
ATTITUDE choices: Constant	The following ATTITUDE choices were evident across all year levels: • High scoring texts featured higher frequencies of APPRECIATION resources and lower frequencies of AFFECT resources. • High scoring texts featured the same repertoire of AFFECT and APPRECIATION resources. • High scoring texts had a preference for positive APPRECIATION and positive JUDGEMENT over negative APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT. • High scoring texts had a preference for inscribed AFFECT over invoked AFFECT. • High scoring texts had a preference for invoked APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT over inscribed APPRECIATION and JUDGEMENT.			

8.3 - The Use of ENGAGEMENT Resources

The analysis of high scoring students' ENGAGEMENT choices suggests markers of the 2011 NAPLAN test valued:

- Texts at all year levels that limited the use of expansive resources, unless used with high modal intensity to constrain the dialogic space made available;
- Texts at all year levels that featured many monoglossic utterances, with the proportion increasing across year levels;
- Texts at all year levels that featured a wide range of ENGAGEMENT resources from each subcategory (however the use of resources of ATTRIBUTION was not necessary to score highly in this context);
- Secondary school texts that used a limited amount of hearsay to bring external perspectives into arguments.

8.3.1 - Monoglossic and Heteroglossic Choices.

Students who scored highly on the 2011 NAPLAN test relied on a greater proportion of monoglossic utterances with each increase in year level. Of their 31 uses of engagement resources, Year 3 students made seven monoglossic assertions, representing 23% of their engagement choices overall. This increased to 35% of the Year 5 engagement choices (21/60), 39% of Year 7 engagement choices (16/41), and 42% of Year 9 engagement choices (38/91) – nearly twice the proportion found in Year 3 texts. While primary school students only made use of monoglossic assertions in their writing, secondary school students also

used the more complex monoglossic presumptions to make undialogised statements whilst seeming objective. In this context, monoglossic utterances played a crucial role in how high scoring students constructed their persuasive texts, yet this clashes with other research into young people's writing development.

Christie and Derewianka (2008) found that students generally made less monoglossic utterances as their writing developed, due to an increased awareness of a potentially divided readership. As such, it was surprising to find that the high scoring Year 7 and Year 9 texts featured a greater proportion of monoglossic utterances than the Year 3 and Year 5 texts. Here are some examples of heteroglossic utterances from the primary school texts:

Year 3 and Year 5 extracts: Heteroglossic utterances

- Recent studies have shown that children with sporting toys will be 75% healthier than someone without.
- Lots of toys and games can be very educational.
- In my opinion I disagree, I am not in favour with this ridiculous concept.
- Games and toys are an important part of life, but people say we are wasting too much money with them.
- I believe toys and games are great fun for anyone.

Yet although the younger students made a lower proportion of monoglossic utterances in their texts, the analysis found the older students made far more complex and varied ENGAGEMENT choices overall. The repertoire of ENGAGEMENT resources used by high scoring students increased from just four of the 12 resources in Year 3, to 11 resources in Year 9. This supports Christie and Derewianka's (2008) findings that students in the later phases of writing development are more sensitive to the needs of audience members, and so use a greater range of heteroglossic resources. Year 3 students demonstrated a limited ability to acknowledge dialogic possibilities in their texts, making use of just ENTERTAIN, PRONOUNCE and DENY. In this context, younger students' texts were more dialogically engaged in terms of the proportion of heteroglossic utterances, yet considerably constrained in their reliance on a small subset of core ENGAGEMENT resources. The overall repertoire of ENGAGEMENT resources increased across the year levels, though dialogically expansive resources were less commonly used by high scoring Year 5, Year 7 and Year 9 students than dialogically contractive resources and monoglossic utterances. The ENGAGEMENT choices made by Year 5, Year 7 and Year 9 students followed a relatively similar pattern, with dialogically contractive resources and monoglossic utterances outweighing dialogically expansive resources considerably. The Year 3 texts were unique in featuring more expansive resources than contractive or monoglossic, and despite their low average word count featured a higher frequency of expansive resources than any other year level, emphasising the

absence of expansive resources in the higher year levels. Expansive resources of ATTRIBUTION, which are highly valued in tertiary essays (e.g., Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Swain, 2010), academic writing (e.g., Hood, 2010) and media texts (e.g., Thomson & White, 2008), were not common in any of the high scoring texts written for the 2011 NAPLAN test, highlighting that these resources are not required for success in this context. High scoring Year 3 students used the expansive ENTERTAIN with high intensity modal forms to limit dialogic space, while older students relied on monoglossic or contractive resources to achieve a similar effect.

8.3.2 - ENGAGEMENT Choices and School-Based Persuasive Genres.

Swain (2010) suggested a link between ENGAGEMENT choices and persuasive genres, with writers of discussions more likely to draw on the heteroglossic resources of ACKNOWLEDGE, DISTANCE, ENDORSE and COUNTER as they manage multiple arguments and perspectives, and writers of expositions more likely to rely on monoglossic utterances as they posit a single perspective only. Regarding the use of monoglossic utterances, the analysis revealed the Year 5 discussion featured seven monoglossic assertions, while the Year 5 exposition featured more than double this amount (n=15). The same pattern was evident at the Year 9 level, with the discussion writer making 14 monoglossic utterances, compared to 24 made by the exposition writer. This finding supports claims by Swain (2010) that reliance on monoglossic utterances is linked to the selection of persuasive genre.

Swain (2010) also predicted that discussion writers would likely draw more external voices into their texts than those who write expositions, through resources of ENDORSEMENT and ATTRIBUTION. Yet in this NAPLAN context, high scoring discussions featured limited use of ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE, and no use of PROCLAIM: ENDORSE or ATTRIBUTE: DISTANCE, to match the absence of these resources in the expository texts.

An explanation for the absence of resources that draw external voices into arguments can be attributed to the NAPLAN testing procedures, which share much contextually with the IELTS test. Coffin and Hewings' (2004) research into non-native speaking undergraduate students' IELTS tests, found the persuasive texts often featured hearsay: non-specific attributions such as *many people believe that. . .*, or *scientists have shown that. . .*. As these texts were "written under test conditions, in a field many students may only have [had] common-sense experience of, referencing specific sources [was] not possible" (Coffin & Hewings, 2004, p. 166). As such, IELTS writers use hearsay "as a less sophisticated, but, nevertheless, necessary device for bringing in perspectives located beyond those of the writer" (Coffin & Hewings, 2004, p. 166). In the high scoring NAPLAN texts, each use of ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE, ATTRIBUTE: DISTANCE, and PROCLAIM: ENDORSE involved hearsay rather than specifying external sources as indicated by the following extracts:

Year 5 extract: ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE and Hearsay

. . . people say we are wasting money

Year 7 extract: PROCLAIM: ENDORSE and Hearsay

Recent studies have shown that children with sporting toys will be 75% healthier than someone without.

Year 9 extracts: ATTRIBUTE: ACKNOWLEDGE/DISTANCE and Hearsay

- Some people believe too much money is spent on "petty" things such as these.
- . . . though some might think: "They spend all their money on toys and games and not all the important things in life". . .

According to Coffin and Hewings (2004), the use of hearsay by IELTS writers was "related to the situational context of producing an essay in a field that [was] not the candidate's area of expertise" (p. 169). While the students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN test would most likely be familiar with the spending of money on toys and games, the absence of resources of ATTRIBUTION suggests they did not possess knowledge of the issue that would allow them to explicitly quote the work of expert individuals or groups to boost the credibility of their arguments. Writers of the IELTS test were forced "to rely more on opinion than evidence and on common consensus rather than expert requirements of academic writing" (Coffin & Hewings, 2004, p. 169). As they were oblivious to the issue before the NAPLAN test commenced (in the interest

of fairness), students who completed the 2011 NAPLAN test were forced to rely on opinion rather than evidence, explaining the absence of ATTRIBUTION and ENDORSEMENT resources. This emphasises that language choices valued in the NAPLAN test are not characteristic of those valued in more authentic persuasive writing contexts.

8.3.3 - The Range and Balance of ENGAGEMENT Choices.

Swain's (2007) research into high and low graded tertiary essays found that higher scoring texts drew on a wider range of resources from the three ENGAGEMENT subcategories and showed a more even balance of expansion and contraction. Conversely, lower scoring texts focused strongly on a small subset of mainly contractive resources.

The analysis of high scoring NAPLAN tests indicated that even at the Year 3 level, students commonly used ENGAGEMENT resources from the three subcategories in their attempts to persuade others. In Year 5, the repertoire increased to include two thirds of ENGAGEMENT resources, followed by a slightly different yet equally varied set of resources in Year 7, and all except one ENGAGEMENT resource in Year 9. Regarding the balance between contraction and expansion, Year 3 texts (11 contractive vs. 13 expansive) and Year 7 texts (16 contractive vs. 9 expansive) were relatively balanced, while Year 5 texts (29 contractive vs. 10 expansive) and Year 9 texts (42 contractive vs. 11 expansive) were more heavily weighted on the contractive side. Considering the differences between Year 5 and Year 9 discussions and expositions, discussions were

considerably more dialogically balanced (32 contractive vs. 16 expansive), compared with expositions (38 contractive vs. 3 expansive). Overall, while these results support Swain's (2007) argument that higher scoring texts feature a wider range of resources from each ENGAGEMENT subcategory.

Table 67. Summary of Valued ENGAGEMENT Choices across Year Levels

	Year 3: 8-9 yrs (early childhood – late childhood)	Year 5: 10-11 yrs (late childhood – early adolescence)	Year 7: 12-13 yrs (early adolescence – mid adoles.)	Year 9: 14-15 yrs (mid adolescence)
ENGAGEMENT choices: Variable	The following ENGAGEMENT choices varied across year levels: **Less** ⟷ **More** Frequency and repertoire of monoglossic resources per text.			
	Less ⟷ **More** Frequency and repertoire of dialogically contractive resources per text.			
	Less ⟷ **More** Repertoire of dialogically expansive resources per text.			
	More ⟷ **Less** Frequency of dialogically expansive resources per text.			
ENGAGEMENT choices: Constant	The following ENGAGEMENT choices were evident across all year levels: • High scoring texts featured the use of at least one resource from each ENGAGEMENT subcategory. • High scoring texts had a preference for contractive resources over monoglossic resources.			

8.4 - The Use of Figurative Language

The analysis of high scoring students' figurative language choices suggests markers of the 2011 NAPLAN test valued:

- Texts that featured a wide variety of schemes throughout arguments to alter the ordinary structure of words in sentences;
- Primary school texts that prominently featured metaphor and hyperbole;
- Secondary school texts that used a wider range of tropes sparingly at key points of arguments.

The use of schemes and tropes increased gradually with each year level, however the rate of increase of schemes (from 25 in Year 3 to 66 in Year 9), was considerably greater than that of tropes (from 16 in Year 3, to 28 in Year 9). As the average word count increased across year levels, the gradual increase of schemes meant the percentage of these figures in each text remained relatively constant, decreasing slightly from Year 3 (16.77%) to Year 5 (16.22%), increasingly slightly to Year 7 (17.83%), and decreasing slightly to Year 9 (14.47%). The following extracts highlight the varied use of schemes across all year levels:

Year 3 extract: Schemes – alliteration, parallelism, epizeuxis

Social skills will make sure children get along well and become very, very nice instead of mean.

Year 5 extract: Schemes – parallelism, epistrophe, anaphora, climax, epizeuxis

A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind, but this makes us curious, so we learn about cyclones (which has something to do with wind), but this even makes us more curious, so we learn about other natural disasters. It will make us go on and go on, learning.

Year 7 extract: parallelism, alliteration, anadiplosis, polysyndeton, climax

For most people in the world fun or amusement makes them feel happy. And with happiness comes the senses of self-worth, high self-esteem and general love of life.

Year 9 extract: parallelism, conduplicatio, epistrophe, climax, antithesis

Good education will set you up for life. It can give you a job, therefore a source of income and a way of life. Toys may be fun, but education is vital.

Conversely, the proportion of tropes in texts at each year level increased more slowly than the increase in average word count, with tropes making up 10.7% of the Year 3 texts, 8.9% of the Year 5 texts, 8.7% of the Year 7 texts, and 6.1% of the Year 9 texts. In this way, the high scoring secondary school texts had lower trope densities than the primary school texts, yet despite this, the secondary school students deployed a greater repertoire of tropes and in more complex ways, such as in the following extracts:

Year 9 extract: Procatalepsis

> And even though some might think, "They spend all their money on toys and games and not all the important things in life," remember, toys and games are educational, sporty, a major part of uniting families, and fantastic for businesses

Year 9 extract: Hypophora

> We cannot say that our children are spending too much money on education, can we? So it figures that we are not spending too much money on toys and games

Year 9 extract: Metaphor

> Spending bucket-loads of cash on toys and games may keep you happy for now, but allocating these funds to your health and education could look after you in the long run.

While Year 7 and Year 9 students used a lower proportion of tropes overall, these students used them more strategically at key points in arguments than the primary school students. This is consistent with tertiary level research that found the strategic placement of tropes at key points in essays was more indicative of persuasiveness than the density or frequency of such figures (Howard, 1990; Kruez, Ashley, & Bartlett, 2002; Sopory & Dillard, 2002). An excess or scarcity of figures can be detrimental to the persuasiveness of a text, making this an important aspect of persuasive writing for young people to get

right (Corbett & Connors, 1999). While the proportion of tropes used decreased gradually, repertoires of tropes increased with each year level. In this context, primary school students were rewarded for deploying schemes and tropes throughout their persuasive texts for multiple rhetorical purposes, while secondary school students were required to strategically deploy a greater variety of tropes at particular points of their arguments, reflecting valued choices at higher levels of education.

8.4.1 - Figures in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide.

As revealed in the analysis, the most prominently used schemes by high scoring students were parallelism (n=75), alliteration (n=24), anaphora (n=15), and antithesis (n=15), while their most prominently used tropes were metaphor (n=39) and hyperbole (n=35). Of these figures, only parallelism and alliteration were listed specifically in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013), while the rhetorical effects of the others were described without listing their names explicitly. Other figures – such as anadiplosis, assonance and conduplicatio – were also not prominent in the marking guide, yet were used by high scoring students at each year level. Conversely, a number of figures were emphasised strongly in the marking guide, yet were not commonly used by any high scoring students – including simile (n=0), personification (n=1), irony (n=2), and epizeuxis (n=2). Figures of speech serve specific stylistic purposes in different forms of discourse, though not all are intended for use in argumentation (Aristotle, 322 B.C./2004; Dombek, 2012; Martin, 1989). For

example, Martin (1989) suggested metaphor is useful for persuasive writing, while simile is more useful for poetry. As such, to assist educators to focus on the right resources in their teaching, the figures of speech explicitly listed in the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) should represent those most valued in young people's persuasive writing at each year level.

A summary of the high scoring students' valued figurative language choices are presented in the following table:

Table 68. Summary of Valued Figurative Language Choices across Year Levels

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Year 3: 8-9 yrs
(early childhood – late childhood)</th><th>Year 5: 10-11 yrs
(late childhood – early adolescence)</th><th>Year 7: 12-13 yrs
(early adoles. – mid adoles.)</th><th>Year 9: 14-15 yrs
(mid adoles.)</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Style choices: Variable</td><td colspan="4">The following figurative language choices varied across year levels:
Less More
←→
Frequency of schemes per text.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Less More
←→
Frequency and repertoire of tropes per text.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Less More
←→
Use of schemes and tropes at key points of arguments for rhetorical effects.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Style choices: Constant</td><td colspan="4">The following style choices were evident across all year levels:
• High scoring texts featured considerable repertoires of schemes.
• High scoring texts had a preference for schemes over tropes.</td></tr>
</table>

8.6 - Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed persuasive language choices made by high scoring primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test in relation to the body of literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. There are notable findings for each lens of the analytical framework that cover new theoretical ground (e.g., the favouring of invoked ATTITUDE over inscribed ATTITUDE from as early as Year 3) or that clash with current understandings (e.g., the higher proportions of monoglossic utterances with each increase in year level). Yet perhaps most concerning was the finding that the choices valued by NAPLAN markers do not necessarily characterise those valued in more authentic persuasive writing contexts that are crucially important to the strengthening of Australian democratic society. In addition, this chapter highlighted complementary lenses from classical rhetoric and SFL, finding points of connection that could inform further research into persuasive writing at different levels of education. The implications of these finding are discussed in the following chapter, which summarises how each research question was addressed by the research design, and puts forward a range of practical and theoretical implications to conclude the study.

9 - Conclusion

9.0 - Introduction

This study sought to determine how contextual features of a standardised writing test positioned primary and secondary school students to make particular persuasive language choices. It also sought to make visible persuasive genre and language choices made by high achieving students across four year levels to highlight what was particularly valued by markers. This was achieved with the forming of an analytical framework that drew on principles of classical rhetoric and SFL to show the students' persuasive genre and language choices. Overall, this study was designed to address the following research questions:

1. How did the 2011 NAPLAN context position young people to make particular choices in their writing?
    a. How were students positioned to make persuasive genre choices?
    b. How were students positioned to make language choices at the level of discourse?
2. What choices were valued in the highest scoring persuasive texts written by Tasmanian primary and secondary school students for the 2011 NAPLAN test?
    a. What persuasive genre choices were valued?
    b. What language choices were valued at the level of discourse?
    c. What are the practical and theoretical implications of these findings?

This concluding chapter outlines how the present study addressed these research questions. In responding to Research Question 2c, this chapter outlines a range of practical and theoretical implications of the study's findings for researchers, teachers, and those who design standardised writing tests.

9.1 - Addressing Research Question 1

In Chapter 6, the 2011 NAPLAN prompt, marking guide and testing procedures were analysed to show how they positioned students to make particular persuasive genre and language choices, and the findings were discussed in relation to literature introduced in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. It was found that these three elements of the test positioned students to complete the task in the following ways:

- Through its wording and images, the 2011 NAPLAN writing prompt positioned students to base their arguments on the special topics of deliberative discourse (i.e., the advantageous and the unworthy), and to follow the generic staging of either analytical expositions or discussions. The wordings and images also positioned them to base their arguments on simple, everyday concepts;
- Through its marking criteria and supporting documentation, the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) positioned students to use particular figures of speech and resources of appraisal in their arguments, whether these choices are particularly suited to persuasive discourse or not;

- Through its rules and regulations, the NAPLAN testing procedures positioned students to rely on personal opinion and hearsay rather than external sources and evidence; to focus less on what they were writing and more on how they were writing it; and to invent their own audiences.

From these findings, three major concerns have been identified with the 2011 NAPLAN writing test, related to the situation's field, tenor and mode. Firstly, the requirement for all students to respond to the same prompt – regardless of their capacity to write persuasively – disadvantaged those in upper primary and secondary school year levels. Secondly, as students were not made aware of the prompt or the general topic area until the test began, and were not able to access external sources of information as they completed it, the test did not capitalise on the opportunity to prepare students for the sorts of genre and language choices valued in higher education and life after school. Thirdly, the test did not provide an authentic reason for students to write persuasively. These concerns are now discussed in more detail.

9.1.1 - Same Prompt, Different Year Levels.

By requiring all students to respond to the same prompt for the 2011 NAPLAN writing test, the high status educational experts at ACARA positioned students to base their arguments on concrete, everyday ideas, when success on the task at higher year levels required more abstract thinking and operation at more complex domains of learning. This finding correlates with work by

Christie and Derewianka (2008), who found that appropriate language choices made by students in the mid-adolescence to late adolescence stages of writing development were significantly more complex than those of students in the lower stages. In catering for the linguistic needs of 8 year old writers, the 2011 NAPLAN prompt limited the responses of older students who could only experience success on the task by making more complex language choices. It is therefore a recommendation of this study that the wordings and images on future NAPLAN prompts should be differentiated to match the developmental levels of students who respond to them.

9.1.2 - Working with External Sources.

As students completed the NAPLAN test with no prior knowledge of the prompt or general topic area, and were not permitted to access external information once the test began, they were forced to support claims with personal opinion and hearsay rather than expert sources and evidence. While favouring opinion over evidence is appropriate in the context of NAPLAN testing, this does not prepare students for the sorts of persuasive genre and language choices that are valued in higher education (Hood, 2010) or civic engagement during and after school (Humphrey, 2008, 2013). Due to the contextual features of NAPLAN testing, even the highest scoring Year 9 texts lacked any reference to external voices. While the texts were structured effectively and included a range of appropriate linguistic features, the absence

of external voices and evidence to support claims would be deemed inappropriate in most other formal persuasive writing contexts.

9.1.3 - Inauthentic Persuasion.

The underlying purposes of school-based persuasive genres – as defined by Martin, (1985), Humphrey (1996), and Coffin (2004) – are inconsequential to NAPLAN testing, as the outcomes of these tests do not impact the status quo in any meaningful way. These tests simply provide an opportunity for educational stakeholders to determine how effectively students can present one or more point(s) of view on an issue and use particular language resources. As a disproportionate amount of classroom time is being spent teaching to the NAPLAN test (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012), it is strongly recommended that Australian educators provide students with more authentic persuasive writing experiences.

9.2 - Addressing Research Question 2

9.2.1 - Persuasive Language Choices Made by All Students.

In Chapter 7, high scoring students' persuasive texts were analysed to make visible the persuasive language choices they made, and in doing so addressed Research Questions 2a and 2b. In broad terms, it was found that high scoring students in all year levels made the following persuasive language choices:

Table 69. Choices Made by all High Scoring Students

Genre	Closely followed the staging of school-based persuasive genres
	Structured arguments into separate paragraphs
	Summarised main arguments in concluding stages
	Followed the form of persuasive discourse emphasised in the 2011 NAPLAN prompt wording (though they based arguments on any range of special topics)
	Featured high semantic ranges of abstract and concrete meanings
Evaluative language	Used a wide range of ATTITUDE resources from each subcategory
	Established prosodies of positive meanings, or complex blends of positive and negative prosodies
	Invoked attitudinal meanings more readily than they inscribed them
	Limited the use of expansive ENGAGEMENT resources, unless used with high modal intensity to limit dialogic space
	Made many monoglossic utterances, with the proportion increasing across year levels
	Used a wide range of ENGAGEMENT resources from each subcategory (minus resources of ATTRIBUTION)
Figurative language	Used a wide variety of schemes throughout arguments
	Used metaphor and hyperbole prominently

9.2.2 - Additional Choices Made by Secondary School Students.

While high scoring students in each year level made the language choices outlined in the table above, secondary school students made a range of

additional, more complex language choices. These choices are presented as follows:

Table 70. Additional Choices Made by Secondary School Students

Genre	Constructed concluding paragraphs in second person to enhance audience alignment
Evaluative language	Commonly invoked attitudinal meanings by flagging and provoking them
	Used limited hearsay to bring external perspectives into arguments
Figurative language	Used a wider range of tropes yet more sparingly
	Used tropes at key points of arguments

When the findings of research questions 1, 2a and 2b are considered in relation to the literature introduced in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, a series of practical and theoretical implications are raised. These implications are outlined in the following section to address the final research question of the study.

9.3 - Practical and Theoretical Implications of the Study

9.3.1 - Practical Implications of the Study.

Research has suggested Australian teachers are spending a disproportionate amount of time developing students' persuasive writing skills for the specific, contextual demands of the NAPLAN test (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012). This is problematic for a range of reasons, stemming from the contrast between NAPLAN testing and persuasive writing practices that are valued and prominent in upper secondary school, higher education, and life

beyond. If persuasive writing instruction focuses on preparing students for NAPLAN-like contexts, there is a risk they will not be taught to scrutinise external sources of information; to integrate the views of experts into their writing; to counter opposing viewpoints; to cater for the specific needs of an identified audience; or to appreciate the power of persuasive language to change minds and the world around them. The following three sections suggest positive ways forward for more effective persuasive writing instruction in Australian classrooms.

9.3.1.1 - Knowing the audience.

Knowledge of the audience is a central principle of classical rhetoric and relates strongly to a range of SFL systems and concepts, yet students who complete the NAPLAN test are entirely unaware of who will mark their texts, and therefore cannot leverage their beliefs or views about the issue, nor their prior experiences. This limits how students can establish high levels of solidarity with actual people who are considering whether or not to think or act in ways suggested by the writer. This is not problematic for the purposes of NAPLAN testing – which encourages students to invent their own audiences – however catering for the specific characteristics of a given audience is a crucial element of successful persuasion in civic engagement (Corbett & Connors, 1999). It is a recommendation of this study that teachers provide students with opportunities to write persuasively for a range of identified audiences.

9.3.1.2 - Authentic persuasive writing experiences.

A major criticism levelled at the NAPLAN writing test has been its lack of relevance to students' lives and contexts (Wyn, Turnbull, & Grimshaw, 2014), and this is relevant to how persuasive writing is taught in classroom settings. Rather than focusing on NAPLAN-like experiences, more effective persuasive writing instruction allows students to see themselves as potential contributors to issues they have a direct stake in (Bolter, 1991; Gyenes & Wilks, 2014). Such experiences stimulate curiosity about how writing can impact issues of relevance, and provide the means for this to occur. It is a recommendation of the study that teachers provide opportunities for students to write about issues they care about in a personal sense; and that highlight the powerful roles persuasive genre and language choices play in contemporary societies. More authentic persuasive writing experiences would familiarise students with the background of an issue before asking them to write about it; focus on the discussion and refinement of ideas, rather than stressful time constraints and bans on external information; present writing prompts that are appropriately matched to levels of writing development; clearly define an audience for students to persuade, positioning them to establish high levels of solidarity; enable them to scrutinise and potentially counter arguments they are exposed to; and better prepare young Australians for the complex demands of persuasive writing at higher levels of education.

9.3.1.3 - Developing a persuasive writing metalanguage.

Chapter 7 highlighted how high scoring students used specific rhetorical devices and language resources from systems of SFL in their writing. While these students may not be able to identify each use of epistrophe or heteroglossic ENTERTAINMENT, they have gained the ability to use such resources in their writing through prior experiences with language. If the persuasive genre and language choices that are valued and rewarded from Year 3 are explicitly taught to those who struggle with this form of writing, they will be empowered to make the same kinds of choices and experience a similar level of success in NAPLAN-like contexts.

The present study has sought to emphasise how the traditional classical rhetoric and the contemporary SFL are complementary theories of language, each featuring influential principles in the Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a) and NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013). A practical persuasive writing metalanguage for teachers and students should therefore feature relevant terms and concepts from each theory. Such a notion was supported by Gyenes and Wilks (2014), who stated that "a teaching focus on rhetoric, supported by an explicit functional grammar, is a key to the social purpose that will help our students bring argumentation to life," and that a foregrounding in rhetoric "would align with a systemic-functional orientation towards the ways grammatical structures, lexical items and Hallidayan linguistic devices intertwine to realise interpersonal meaning" (p. 12). One

potential way for teachers to achieve this, would be to leverage the analytical framework presented in this study, as it features key principles from both theories that are specifically relevant to persuasive writing and its instruction.

Summarising these positive ways forward for teachers, it is the recommendation of this study that Australian educators complement the teaching of persuasive writing for NAPLAN-like contexts with opportunities for students to write persuasively for authentic purposes. These opportunities would allow students to know the audiences they are attempting to persuade, and discuss valued persuasive genre and language choices through the use of a metalanguage that brings together relevant aspects of two influential language theories. This would negate the concern that students who are only prepared for NAPLAN-like contexts are not being taught to make language choices that are essential for effective persuasion in later years of education and society more broadly. It is likely that such persuasive writing experiences would consequently enhance student outcomes on the NAPLAN writing test.

9.3.2 - Implications for Future Research.

This study has highlighted a number of areas that deserve further investigation. These areas are outlined as followed:

1. The findings of the study highlight that as early as Year 3, students who succeed with persuasive writing are those who make surprisingly complex genre and language choices, indicative of higher year levels and stages of writing development. Further

research is required to discover whether students at even earlier year levels are capable of making such valued choices in their persuasive writing. It would be particularly interesting to analyse high achieving Year 1 and Year 2 students with the same analytical framework, as they are more firmly entrenched in the Early Childhood stage of writing development than those in Year 3.

2. This thesis drew on classical rhetoric and SFL to produce an analytical framework of five lenses, however other important principles from both theories could have been included if the scope of the thesis was wider. Further research is required to investigate the roles played by GRADUATION resources of APPRAISAL and theme/rheme choices from SFL, as well as appeals to ethos, pathos and logos, and common topics for the forms of persuasive discourse from classical rhetoric. This would allow researchers and educators to understand more about young people's valued persuasive genre and language choices, and may have further implications for theory and practice.
3. This study is the first to identify invoked attitude as a key resource used by young writers to persuade others, yet further research is required to investigate the approximate time when young people begin to make this language choice. Such research might also investigate invocations in children's oral language.

4. Further research is required to determine whether the prosodies of interpersonal meanings established in the high scoring students' texts were prosodies of saturation, intensification, or domination (Martin & White, 2005), and whether these uses varied across year levels. This would reveal at a greater level of delicacy how these prosodies were established, and whether or not the kinds of prosodies changed across year levels.
5. Further research could also focus on whether the emphasis on various types of repetition in classical rhetoric could further develop descriptions of the GRADUATION system of APPRAISAL in SFL, which to this point accounts for a smaller range of patterns of repetition in language.
6. The study highlighted how metaphor and rhetorical questions are tropes that can realise the effects of particular appraisal resources, yet further research could be conducted to determine whether such complementary ties exist between other tropes (i.e., particularly those emphasised in key documents like the NAPLAN Persuasive Writing Marking Guide (ACARA, 2013) and Australian Curriculum: English (ACARA, 2011a)) and resources of appraisal.
7. While this study highlighted links between the schemes of classical rhetoric and theme progression patterns of SFL, further research could contrast understandings of these principles in greater detail.

Such research has the potential to make visible more links between these theories than the present study.

8. Recent research combining SFL with Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2011; Macnaught, Maton, Martin, & Matruglio, 2013) has highlighted how an integrated approach has the potential to positively impact on teacher pedagogy. While beyond the scope of this study, future research could focus on how standardised tests like NAPLAN communicate abstract and concrete ideas through their prompts and supporting documentation that position students to make particular genre and language choices.
9. Further research could also be conducted to test the practical application of this study's findings. For instance, it would be interesting to assess how teaching with the analytical framework impacts on students' persuasive genre and language choices, and also to interpret persuasive choices made in other contexts.
10. A final direction forward is for curriculum designers to develop an integrated approach when dealing with persuasive writing instruction, as it was clear in the findings of this study that high achieving students made genre and language choices from both classical rhetoric and SFL. These linguistic traditions have natural theoretical connections and high achieving students are using genre and language choices from each in their persuasive writing, and as

such, further research could seek to determine how these concepts might be meaningfully blend to enhance teacher pedagogy.

9.4 - Envoi

This study began by stating the significance of persuasive writing and its instruction in sustaining and strengthening democratic societies. Students who learn to write persuasively can articulate their views with clarity and purpose (Corbett & Connors, 1999); realise social justice aims (Humphrey, 2008, 2013); and engage effectively in youth activism at a grassroots level (Kerkham & Comber, 2013). Yet despite its importance, many students struggle with the complex language demands of persuasive writing. The sorts of students most and least likely to succeed have been emphasised in the annual NAPLAN reports since 2011, with those from remote areas, lower socioeconomic backgrounds and of Indigenous descent tending to struggle the most (ACARA, 2011c). This is not a new issue, as the same sorts of students have struggled more than any other groups with persuasive and other forms of writing for the past three decades (Martin, 1989).

The blame for the gap between those who do and do not experience success with persuasive writing has been attributed to a range of educational stakeholders, including teachers (e.g., Hillocks, 2010; Felton & Kuhn, 2001); students (Felton & Herko, 2004; Graff, 2003; Kuhn, 2005); and even whole school systems (Bernstein, 1990, 1996; Rose, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2007). However, the findings of the present study point to an additional factor that can serve to

advantage particular groups of students over others: testing programs like NAPLAN.

NAPLAN writing tests position students to respond in particular ways, yet only reward those who make considerably more complex genre and language choices than what is articulated in the given prompt. This is particularly problematic for secondary school students who are required to respond to the same basic prompt provided to 8 year old Year 3 students. However the most alarming aspect of NAPLAN testing is its impact on teacher practice in classrooms around Australia. A great deal of pressure is placed on educators to teach to the NAPLAN test (Dulfer, Polesel, & Rice, 2012; Thompson, 2013), however doing so limits the development of crucial persuasive writing skills that are necessary for success in higher education (Hood, 2006, 2010; Swain, 2007) and life after school (Corbett & Connors, 1999; Crowhurst, 1990). Furthermore, recent NAPLAN results indicate that rates of achievement on the tests are actually *decreasing* (ACARA, 2014), despite the disproportionate amount of time spent preparing students for such writing contexts.

Instead of being limited in this way, Australian primary and secondary school students should be provided with opportunities to write persuasively for authentic purposes, and positioned to make the sorts of genre and language choices that are valued in the work of high achieving students at each year level. Doing so will help young people to understand how to write persuasively and

why engaging in this practice is of great significance. Engaging young people in persuasive practices that relate to real-life matters of importance will increase their interest in this form of writing as they gain mastery over the language of power.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Tasmanian Department of Education Requirements for Study

Department of Education
EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE SERVICES

2/73 Murray Street, Hobart
GPO Box 169, Hobart, TAS 7001 Australia

Tasmania

File: 1385135

6 February 2012

Damon Thomas
PhD Candidate
University of Tasmania
UTAS School of Education
2/7 Bank Street, Mowbray
Launceston, TAS 7248

Dear Mr Thomas

Investigating high achieving Tasmanian students' use of rhetorical resources in persuasive writing

I have been advised by the Educational Performance Report Committee that your application adheres to the guidelines established and that there is no objection to the study proceeding.

As stated in our previous correspondence any release of NAPLAN data involves strict protocols across all government jurisdictions to protect the integrity of the data and the privacy of individuals. It is a condition of approval of your application that the de-identified writing scripts which will be released to you are used following these guidelines:

- The scripts are made available for the purpose of your research alone. They should not be used for any other purpose.
- Full versions of the scripts are made available solely for analysis by you and any researcher employed to assist you with your research.
- Copying of the scripts in electronic form is not authorised. All raw data, including hand written scripts should be transcribed before inclusion in the research.
- No raw data, including handwritten texts, should be included in your thesis or in any scholarly work published as a result of your research.
- At no time should full versions of the scripts be circulated either in electronic or printed form, except amongst your research team for the purposes of analysis.
- Publication of full versions of the scripts in your thesis or in any scholarly work arising out of your research is not authorised.
- Publication of extended extracts (in excess of 10%) from the scripts in your thesis or in any scholarly work arising from your research is not authorised.

- Publication of selected phrases and rhetorical devices such as figures of speech to support your findings is authorised both in your thesis and in any scholarly work arising from your thesis.
- Use of the raw data to compare or rank achievement of Tasmanian students to students in other jurisdictions is not authorised.
- Use of the raw data to trace the development of persuasive skills in the *Australian Curriculum* across year levels is authorised.
- Use of the raw data to draw conclusions about the achievement of Tasmanian students against the expectations of the *Australian Curriculum* is not authorised.

Upon completion of your research, a copy of your final report must be forwarded to Educational Performance Services, Department of Education, GPO Box 169, Hobart 7001, at your earliest convenience and within six months of the completion of the research phase.

Yours sincerely

Tony Luttrell
Manager
(Educational Performance Services)

Appendix 2. ATTITUDE analysis tables

Key for analysis

ATTITUDE analysis	
+	positive ATTITUDE
-	negative ATTITUDE
I	inscribed ATTITUDE
V	invoked ATTITUDE

Text 3 – 1

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+ /-	I/V	Appraised
I definitely disagree			Reaction	-	V	this statement (that too much money is being spent on toys and games)
very helpful			Valuation	+	I	Toys and games
All children should have			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
very educational			Valuation	+	I	Lots of toys and games
help with numeracy and literacy skills			Valuation	+	V	Scrabble and Monopoly
help with hand eye co-ordination			Valuation	+	V	A lot of console games

support jobs		Propriety		+	V	Buying toys and games
support companies		Propriety		+	V	It (buying toys and games)
they will have to shut down		Propriety		-	V	without them getting enough money
it's easier to have family time			Valuation	+	V	because of toys and games
develop social skills			Valuation	+	V	toys and games
let children create a much needed sense of belonging			Valuation	+	V	Family time
make children get along		Propriety		+	V	Social skills
(make children) become very, very nice		Propriety		+	I	Social skills
(make children become nice) instead of mean		Propriety		+	I	Social skills
all children should deserve and receive		Propriety		+	V	(Buying all children) toys and games

Text 3 – 2

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+ / -	I/ V	Appraised
ridiculous			Reaction	-	I	this ridiculous concept (that we are spending too much money on toys)
everyone in the world liked	Happiness			+	I	(Everyone's feelings about) toys and games
isn't wasted		Tenacity		+	I	it (spending on toys and games)
the fun would be sucked out of the world			Reaction	-	V	(The world) without toys and games
there would be no more entertainment			Reaction	-	V	(The world) without toys and games
a miserable (place)			Reaction	-	I	(The world) without entertainment
(a) desolate place			Reaction	-	I	(The world) without entertainment
Children like	Happiness			+	I	(Children's' feelings about)

						toys and games
children's parents would be so tired	Satisfaction			-	I	(Parents' feelings) without them (toys and games)
make people relax and calm down			Reaction	+	V	Toys and games
hyperactive and very tired	Satisfaction			-	I	(Everyone's feelings) without them (toys and games)
because there would be no more fun			Reaction	-	I	(A world without toys and games)
could get tired	Satisfaction			-	I	(Parents' feelings) without them (toys and games)
make people relax			Reaction	+	V	they (toys and games)
we should still have		Propriety		+	V	toys and games

Text 5 – 1

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/-	I/V	Appraised
important			Valuation	+	I	Games and toys

People say we are wasting		Tenacity		-	I	(Spending) money with them (toys and games)
I strongly believe we are not wasting		Tenacity		+	I	(Spending) money with them (toys and games)
could go on for a better world		Propriety		+	V	(Spending) for a better world
(double coded)		Propriety		-	V	(Spending on toys and games)
help you learn			Valuation	+	I	Some toys and games
becomes much more			Valuation	+	V	it (a kite when flying)
understand wind		Capacity		+	V	(People flying) a kite
makes us curious	Satisfa ction			+	I	this (our feelings when we understand wind)
learn about cyclones		Capacity		+	V	(People who are) curious
curious	Satisfa ction			+	I	this (our feelings when we learn about cyclones)

learn about natural disasters		Capacity		+	V	(People who are) more curious
will make us go on and go on learning			Valuation	+	V	It (a kite)
keeps you fit			Valuation	+	V	It (toys and games)
we become fit		Capacity		+	V	our movement (when using sporting toys)
(double coded)			Valuation	+	V	(Sporting toys)
could go on for the better		Propriety		-	V	using money (on toys and games)
could use		Propriety		+	V	(Donating money) to charities
(double coded)		Propriety		-	V	(Using money) on games
help people with disabilities and poor people		Propriety		+	I	It (donating money to charities)
we need			Valuation	+	V	games and toys
We are not wasting		Tenacity		+	I	(Spending) money with

						them (toys and games)
we must think twice		Propriety		-	V	if we were going to buy one (toys and games)

Text 5 – 2

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/-	I/V	Appraised
tired of	Satisfaction			-	I	(Feelings when) sitting at home on the couch with nothing to do
bored	Satisfaction			-	I	(People's feelings when they) sit on their couch
not a good way			Reaction	-	I	That (sitting on the couch, bored)
favourite			Reaction	+	I	(A) toy
favourite			Reaction	+	I	(A) doll
Even better			Reaction	+	I	go(ing) outside and play(ing) fetch
having fun	Satisfaction			+	I	(Feelings when playing fetch outside)

getting some exercise		Capacity		+	V	(Playing fetch outside)
not expensive			Valuation	+	I	Toys and games
great fun for anyone			Reaction	+	V	Toys and games
don't have to			Reaction	+	V	play them (toys and games) inside
can just			Reaction	+	V	play them (toys and games) outside
fun	Satisfaction			+	I	(People's feelings when they) play a game or a toy
(double coded)			Reaction	+	I	(Playing) a game or a toy
the best medicine			Valuation	+	I	Laughter
true			Valuation	+	I	it (the saying: Laughter is the best medicine)
is a cure			Valuation	+	V	Laughter
suffer	Happiness			-	I	(Children's feelings when they have) cancer, heart failure, a rare disease or a

						serious illness
leaves them in hospital, bedridden for months/ years		Capacity		-	V	(Having) cancer, heart failure, a rare disease or a serious illness
really does help			Valuation	+	I	Laughter
can do that			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
the best thing ever			Valuation	+	V	To see a smile on a child who is sick
is rewarding			Reaction	+	I	It (seeing a smile on a child who is sick)
makes them feel better	Happi ness			+	V	It (seeing a smile on a child who is sick)
cheap			Valuation	+	I	something (toys and games)
smile	Happi ness			+	V	(Sick children's feelings when using toys and games)
want to be fit		Capacity		+	I	(Using toys and games)

not bored	Satisfaction			+	I	(Feelings when using toys and games)
happy	Happiness			+	I	(Feelings when using toys and games)
the best thing for you, me and everyone			Valuation	+	I	Toys and games

Text 7 – 1

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/-	I/V	Appraised
very important			Valuation	+	I	(A) matter (the issue at stake)
good			Reaction	+	I	toys
deserve		Propriety		+	V	(Spending) money on them (toys and games)
help children to develop cognitive and motor skills			Valuation	+	V	many toys
vitally important			Valuation	+	I	The abilities that these toys help form

(double coded)			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
hard to live a normal life		Capacity		-	V	(Not having) motor and cognitive skills
help instil in kids a sense of wonder about their world			Valuation	+	V	Toys and playthings
help children to understand and wonder how things work			Valuation	+	V	Many toys
allows them to explore the world they live in		Capacity		+	V	(Children) wondering and understanding
fun			Reaction	+	I	Toys
makes them feel happy	Happiness			+	I	(Most people's feelings of) fun or amusement
comes the senses of self-worth	Security			+	V	(Feelings) With happiness
high self-esteem	Security			+	V	(Feelings that come) With happiness

general love of life	Happiness			+	I	(Feelings that come) With happiness
help to educate			Valuation	+	I	Toys
develop and enrich the lives of children			Valuation	+	V	Toys
really that bad … ?		Propriety		+	I	Spend(ing) some money on then (toys and games)

Text 7 – 2

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/-	I/V	Appraised
completely incorrect			Reaction	-	V	the statement "Too much money is spent on toys and games"
improve happiness			Valuation	+	V	Games and toys
to be educational			Valuation	+	I	Games and toys
let a child be active and physical			Valuation	+	V	Games and toys
improve happiness by letting a child escape			Valuation	+	V	Toys

to world that is entirely their own						
stressful	Security			-	I	(Most children's feelings when) growing up
escape from reality			Reaction	+	V	(Using) toys
may develop anxiety, depression or other mental illnesses	Security			-	I	(A kid's feelings) Without the escape from reality toys can give
(double coded)			Valuation	+	V	toys
educational			Valuation	+	I	Games
massively contribute to a young child's intellectual ability			Valuation	+	V	They (games)
their general brain development			Valuation	+	V	They (games)
a kid's social ability			Valuation	+	V	They (games)
their brain will develop much slower		Capacity		-	V	a baby (who) isn't given games and toys when it is still young

to teach them about love, respect, the world and how to act in society		Propriety		+	V	(giving) a child toys
mental problems when they reach adulthood		Capacity		-	V	(A child not having) educational toys
(double coded)			Valuation	+	V	Educational toys
let a child be active and healthy			Valuation	+	V	Toys
may become the next basketball legend		Capacity		+	V	a kid (who) is given a basketball when they are young
make them lazy		Tenacity		-	I	Not letting a kid access such sporting toys
(make them) unhealthy		Capacity		-	I	Not letting a kid access such sporting toys
(make them) inactive		Capacity		-	I	Not letting a kid access such sporting toys

let kids get outdoors in the open			Valuation	+	V	Most sporty type toys
always excellent			Valuation	+	I	kids get(ting) outdoors in the open
75% healthier		Capacity		+	V	children with sporting toys
(double coded)			Valuation	+	V	sporting toys
can't be bothered		Propriety		-	V	parents (not buying children toys)
because they saw "that gorgeous bag I just had to have"		Propriety		-	V	parents (who) don't want to spend the money (on toys)
asking for them to be overweight		Propriety		-	V	Not letting children have toys
overweight		Capacity		-	I	children (who do not) have toys
(asking for them to be) mentally unstable		Propriety		-	V	Not letting children have toys
mentally unstable		Capacity		-	I	children (who do not) have toys

(asking for them to be) behind in the classroom		Propriety		-	V	Not letting children have toys
behind in the classroom		Capacity		-	V	children (who do not) have toys
improve happiness			Valuation	+	V	Toys
(improve) health and brain development			Valuation	+	V	Toys
mean		Propriety		-	I	Not giving children toys
cruel		Propriety		-	I	Not giving children toys
just plain unfair		Propriety		-	I	Not giving children toys

Text 9 – 1

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/ -	I/ V	Appraised
"petty"			Valuation	-	I	things (toys and games)
excellent stimulants for the brain			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
get you thinking, developing facets of			Valuation	+	V	they (toys and games)

knowledge and experience						
good			Reaction	+	I	reasons for toys and games
the money could be spent on "more important" things		Propriety		-	V	(Spending on toys and games)
more important			Valuation	+	I	things (alternatives to toys and games)
excessive		Propriety		-	I	Spend(ing money) on toys and games
could go to poorer countries		Propriety		-	V	Spend(ing money) on toys and games
(could be) allocated to things such as health and education		Propriety		-	V	Spend(ing money) on toys and games
offer wonderful things			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
make you feel happy			Reaction	+	V	they (toys and games)

give your brain a workout			Valuation	+	V	they (toys and games)
beneficial to your mental health			Valuation	+	V	video games
fun			Reaction	+	V	games
constructive			Valuation	+	V	they (games)
live in luxury		Normality		+	V	(living in) countries like Australia
live without even the bare necessities		Normality		-	V	(living in) places such as Timor
could make a world of difference		Propriety		+	V	Donating to causes such as this (charities)
Another good way		Propriety		+	I	giv(ing) it (money) to vital areas such as health and education
vital			Valuation	+	I	areas such as health and education
may keep you happy	Happi ness			+	I	(Feelings when) Spending bucket-loads of cash on toys and games

look after you in the long run		Tenacity		+	V	allocating these funds to your health and education
set you up for life		Tenacity		+	V	Good education
can give you a job, therefore a source of income and a way of life		Tenacity		+	V	It (good education)
fun			Reaction	+	I	Toys
vital			Valuation	+	I	Education
rewarding			Reaction	+	V	Toys and games
mind building			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
more important things			Valuation	+	I	(Alternatives) to worry about
pros			Reaction	+	V	(Aspects of) both parties
cons			Reaction	-	V	(Aspects of) both parties
have their reasons			Valuation	+	V	Both sides (of the issue)
legitimate			Valuation	+	I	Both sides (of the issue)

Text 9 – 2

Instantiation	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	+/-	I/V	Appraised
worried	Security			-	I	(People's feelings about) too much money (being) spent on toys and games
incorrect			Reaction	-	V	this statement (that we are spending too much money on toys and games)
great for our knowledge			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
great for maintaining our physical health			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
brilliant for keeping families together			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
crucial for business in toys departments around the world			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
important			Valuation	+	I	it (the need to acknowledge

						that schools are not the only things providing education for our children)
all major factors of educating			Valuation	+	V	Board games such as Scrabble, Snakes and ladders, and Chess
teaches spelling			Valuation	+	V	Scrabble
teaches probability			Valuation	+	V	Snakes and ladders
teaches logic and strategy			Valuation	+	V	Chess
has at least some form of education involved			Valuation	+	V	almost every board game in the world
cannot say		Propriety		+	V	children spending too much money on education
it figures		Propriety		+	V	we are not spending too much money on toys and games
significant			Valuation	+	I	Physical health

major source fun ways for exercising			Reaction	+	I	Toys and games
(major source fun ways for) maintaining health			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
so popular			Reaction	+	V	Toys and games
became professionals		Capacity		+	I	People (using toys and games)
went to competitions throughout the world		Capacity		+	V	People (using toys and games)
like	Happiness			+	I	Boys(' feelings about) skateboarding
winning the gold medal for international skateboarding		Capacity		+	V	Boys (who) get more professional (at skateboarding)
fun			Reaction	+	I	this (exercising or maintaining health)
improving your fitness			Valuation	+	V	this (exercising or maintaining health)

keeping families close			Valuation	+	V	board games and toys
brings families closer			Valuation	+	V	This (family game nights)
allows everyone to be happy and relaxed			Valuation	+	V	This (family game nights)
less likely to argue			Valuation	+	V	This (family game nights)
arguing and constantly fighting		Propriety		-	V	(having) nothing to bring the family together
Not too much		Propriety		+	V	(spending money) on toys and games on toys
survive		Propriety		+	V	people buying their (departments ') toys
sadness	Happiness			-	I	(Children's feelings when) his favourite toy shop has been shut down
for the sake of your		Propriety		+	V	spend(ing) money on toys and

child's happiness						games to keep these shops alive
would cost more money than to buy a toy		Tenacity		-	V	It (renovating a whole department)
(double coded)		Tenacity		+	V	buy(ing) a toy
a major part of our lives and our children			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
not all the important things in life		Propriety		-	V	(Some people who might think we are) spending all (our) money on toys and games
educational			Valuation	+	I	Toys and games
sporty			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
a major part of uniting families			Valuation	+	V	Toys and games
fantastic for businesses			Valuation	+	I	Toys and games
most importantly			Valuation	+	I	(The) creat(ion) of happiness for your children

NOT too much		Propriety		+	V	money spent on toys and games

Year	Aff	Jud	App	+	-	I	V
3.1	0	7	9	14	2	4	12
3.2	5	2	8	6	9	10	5
3	5	9	17	20	11	14	17
5.1	2	14	7	18	5	8	15
5.2	9	3	18	25	5	21	9
5	11	17	25	43	10	29	24
7.1	4	4	10	17	1	8	10
7.2	2	19	18	20	19	13	26
7	6	23	28	37	20	21	36
9.1	1	11	21	26	7	11	22
9.2	3	13	27	37	6	11	32
9	4	24	48	63	13	22	54

Year 3	Uses
AFF: HAPPINESS	2
AFF: SECURITY	0
AFF: SATISFACTION	3
JUD: NORMALITY	0
JUD: CAPACITY	0
JUD: TENACITY	1
JUD: VERACITY	0
JUD: PROPRIETY	8
APP: REACTION	9
APP: COMPOSITION	0
APP: VALUATION	8
Frequency overall	31
Repertoire overall	6/11

Year 5	Uses
AFF: HAPPINESS	4
AFF: SECURITY	0
AFF: SATISFACTION	7
JUD: NORMALITY	0
JUD: CAPACITY	7
JUD: TENACITY	3
JUD: VERACITY	0
JUD: PROPRIETY	7
APP: REACTION	9
APP: COMPOSITION	0
APP: VALUATION	16
Frequency overall	53
Repertoire overall	7/11

Year 7	Uses
AFF: HAPPINESS	2
AFF: SECURITY	4
AFF: SATISFACTION	0
JUD: NORMALITY	0
JUD: CAPACITY	11
JUD: TENACITY	1
JUD: VERACITY	0
JUD: PROPRIETY	11
APP: REACTION	4
APP: COMPOSITION	0
APP: VALUATION	24
Frequency overall	57
Repertoire overall	7/11

Year 9	Uses
AFF: HAPPINESS	3
AFF: SECURITY	1
AFF: SATISFACTION	0
JUD: NORMALITY	2
JUD: CAPACITY	3
JUD: TENACITY	5
JUD: VERACITY	0
JUD: PROPRIETY	14
APP: REACTION	11
APP: COMPOSITION	0
APP: VALUATION	37
Frequency overall	76
Repertoire overall	8/11

Year 3	Uses
AFFECT positive	2
AFFECT negative	3
JUDGEMENT positive	8
JUDGEMENT negative	1
APPRECIATION positive	10
APPRECIATION negative	7

Year 5	Uses
AFFECT positive	8
AFFECT negative	3
JUDGEMENT positive	11
JUDGEMENT negative	6
APPRECIATION positive	24
APPRECIATION negative	1

Year 7	Uses
AFFECT positive	4
AFFECT negative	2
JUDGEMENT positive	6
JUDGEMENT negative	17
APPRECIATION positive	27
APPRECIATION negative	1

Year 9	Uses
AFFECT positive	2
AFFECT negative	2
JUDGEMENT positive	16
JUDGEMENT negative	8
APPRECIATION positive	45
APPRECIATION negative	3

Year 3	Uses	
AFFECT inscribed	5	Inscribed 14
AFFECT invoked	0	
JUDGEMENT inscribed	3	Invoked 12
JUDGEMENT invoked	6	
APPRECIATION inscribed	6	
APPRECIATION invoked	11	

Year 5	Uses	Totals
AFFECT inscribed	9	Inscribed 29
AFFECT invoked	2	
JUDGEMENT inscribed	5	Invoked 24
JUDGEMENT invoked	12	
APPRECIATION inscribed	15	
APPRECIATION invoked	10	

Year 7	Uses	Totals
AFFECT inscribed	4	Inscribed 21
AFFECT invoked	2	
JUDGEMENT inscribed	9	Invoked 36
JUDGEMENT invoked	14	
APPRECIATION inscribed	8	
APPRECIATION invoked	20	

Year 9	Uses	Totals
AFFECT inscribed	4	Inscribed 22
AFFECT invoked	0	
JUDGEMENT inscribed	3	Invoked 54
JUDGEMENT invoked	21	
APPRECIATION inscribed	15	
APPRECIATION invoked	33	

Year 3-1

Instantiation	Affect	Judge.	Apprec.	+/-	Invocation type	Appraised
I definitely disagree			Reac.	-	flagged	this statement (that too much money is being spent on toys and games)
All children should have			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
help with numeracy and literacy skills.			Valu.	+	afforded	Scrabble and Monopoly
help with hand eye co-ordination.			Valu.	+	afforded	A lot of console games
support jobs		Prop.		+	afforded	Buying toys and games
support companies		Prop.		+	afforded	It (buying toys and games)

they will have to shut down		Prop.		-	provoked	without them getting enough money
it's easier to have family time			Valu.	+	afforded	because of toys and games
develop social skills			Valu.	+	afforded	toys and games
will let children create a much needed sense of belonging			Valu.	+	flagged	Family time
make children get along well		Prop.		+	afforded	Social skills
all children should deserve and receive		Prop.		+	flagged	(Buying all children) toys and games

Year 3-2

Instantiation	Affect	Judge.	Apprec.	+/-	Invocation type	Appraised
the fun would be sucked out of the world	Satis.			-	provoked	(The world) without toys and games
there would be no more entertainment	Satis.			-	afforded	(The world) without toys and games

make people relax and calm down			Reac.	+	afforded	Toys and games
make people relax			Valu.	+	afforded	Toys and games
we should still have		Prop.		+	afforded	(Buying toys and games)

Year 9 - 1

Instantiation	Affect	Judge.	Apprec.	+/-	Invocation type	Appraised
excellent stimulants for the brain			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
get you thinking, developing facets of knowledge and experience			Valu.	+	flagged	they (toys and games)
the money could be spent on "more important" things		Prop.		-	flagged	(Spending on toys and games)
could go to poorer countries		Prop.		+	afforded	Spend(ing money) on toys and games
(could be) allocated to		Prop.		+	afforded	Spend(ing money) on

things such as health and education						toys and games
offer wonderful things			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
make you feel happy			Valu.	+	afforded	they (toys and games)
give your brain a workout			Valu.	+	provoked	they (toys and games)
beneficial to your mental health			Valu.	+	afforded	video games
fun			Reac.	+	afforded	games
constructive			Valu.	+	afforded	they (games)
live in luxury		Norm.		-	flagged	(living in) countries like Australia
live without even the bare necessities		Norm.		-	flagged	(living in) places such as Timor
could make a world of difference		Prop.		+	provoked	Donating to causes such as this (charities)
look after you in the long run		Tena.		+	provoked	allocating these funds to your health and education
set you up for life		Tena.		+	provoked	Good education

can give you a job, therefore a source of income and a way of life		Tena.		+	afforded	It (good education)
rewarding			Valu.	+	afforded	Toys and games
mind building			Valu.	+	provoked	Toys and games
pros			Reac.	+	afforded	(Aspects of) both parties
cons			Reac.	-	afforded	(Aspects of) both parties
have their reasons			Valu.	-	afforded	Both sides (of the issue)

Year 9-2

Instantiation	Affect	Judge.	Apprec.	+/-	Invocation type	Appraised
incorrect			Reac.	-	afforded	this statement (that we are spending too much money on toys and games)
great for our knowledge			Valu.	+	afforded	Toys and games
great for maintaining our physical health			Valu.	+	afforded	Toys and games

brilliant for keeping families together			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
crucial for business			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
all major factors of educating			Valu.	+	flagged	Board games such as Scrabble, Snakes and ladders, and Chess
teaches spelling			Valu.	+	afforded	Scrabble
teaches probability			Valu.	+	afforded	Snakes and ladders
teaches logic and strategy			Valu.	+	afforded	Chess
has at least some form of education involved			Valu.	+	flagged	almost every board game in the world
cannot say		Prop.		+	afforded	children spending too much money on education
it figures		Prop.		+	flagged	we are not spending too much money on toys and games
(major source of fun ways for)			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games

maintaining health						
so popular			Reac.	+	flagged	Toys and games
went to competitions throughout the world		Capa.		+	afforded	People (using toys and games)
winning the gold medal for international skateboarding		Capa.		+	provoked	Boys (who) get more professional (at skateboarding)
improving your fitness			Valu.	+	afforded	this (exercising or maintaining health)
keeping families close			Valu.	+	provoked	board games and toys
brings families closer			Valu.	+	provoked	This (family game nights)
allows everyone to be happy			Valu.	+	afforded	This (family game nights)
less likely to argue		Prop.		+	afforded	This (family game nights)
arguing and constantly fighting		Prop.		-	flagged	(having) nothing to bring the family together
Not too much		Prop.		+	afforded	(spending money) on

						toys and games on toys
survive		Prop.		+	provoked	people buying their (departments') toys
for the sake of your child's happiness, spend money on toys		Prop.		+	flagged	spend(ing) money on toys and games to keep these shops alive
would cost more than to buy a toy		Tena.		-	afforded	It (renovating a whole department)
(double coded)		Tena.		+	afforded	buy(ing) a toy
a major part			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
"not all the important things in life"		Prop.		-	flagged	(Some people who might think we are) spending all (our) money on toys and games
sporty			Valu.	+	afforded	Toys and games
a major part of uniting families			Valu.	+	flagged	Toys and games
NOT too much		Prop.		+	flagged	money spent on toys and games

Year 3 total

Invocation type	Uses
Provoked	2
Invited: Flagged	4
Invited: Afforded	11

Year 9 total

Invocation type	Uses
Provoked	9
Invited: Flagged	19
Invited: Afforded	26

Appendix 3. ENGAGEMENT tables

Key for ENGAGEMENT analysis

ENGAGEMENT analysis	
M	Monoglossic utterances
MA	Monoglossic Assertion
MP	Monoglossic Presumption
HC	Heteroglossically Contractive resources
DD	DISCLAIM DENY
DC	DISCLAIM COUNTER
PCA	PROCLAIM CONCUR AFFIRM
PCC	PROCLAIM CONCUR CONCEDE
PRP	PROCLAIM REINFORCE PRONOUNCE
PRJ	PROCLAIM REINFORCE JUSTIFY
PE	PROCLAIM ENDORSE
HE	Heteroglossically Expansive resources
E	ENTERTAIN
AA	ATTRIBUTE ACKNOWLEDGE
AD	ATTRIBUTE DISTANCE

Year 3 - 1

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
	DD		I definitely disagree with this statement	
	PRP		Toys and games can be very helpful	

		E	All children should have	High int. obligation
	PRP		Lots of toys and games can be	
	PRP		Scrabble and Monopoly can help	
	PRP		a lot of console games can help	
	PRP		buying toys and games can help	
		E	could also support companies	Low int. probability
MA			they will have to shut down	
MA			it's easier to have family time	
		E	Family time will let children create	High int. probability
		E	Social skills will make sure	High int. probability
MA			and become very, very nice	
		E	all children should deserve and receive	High int. obligation

Year 3 - 2

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
	PRP		In my opinion	
	DD		I disagree	
	DD		I am not in favour with this	
	PRP		I am convinced that everyone	
	DD		it isn't wasted money	

MA			it is spent money	
		E	the fun would be sucked out	High int. probability
		E	there would be no more entertainment	High int. probability
		E	would become a miserable and desolate place	High int. probability
MA			Children like toys and games	
		E	would be so tired	High int. probability
MA			games make people relax and calm down	
		E	would be hyperactive	
		E	would be no more fun	High int. probability
		E	could get tired	Low int. probability
MA			they make people relax	
		E	we should still have	High int. obligation

Year 5 - 1

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
MA			toys are an important part	
	DC		but	
		AA	people say we are wasting	
	PRP		I strongly believe	

	DD		we are not	
	DC		but	
		E	could go on for	Low int. probability
	PRP		can help you learn	
MA			a kite is a toy	
	DC		but when you fly it	
		E	A kite would be flying	High int. probability
	PRJ		so people learn about	
	DC		but this makes us	
	PRJ		so we learn about	
MA			which has something	
	DC		but this makes us	
	PRJ		so we learn about	
		E	will make us go on and go on	High int. probability
MA			it keeps you fit	
MA			Sports equipment is a	
MA			We use it to play	
	PRJ		Because of our movement	
	PRJ		so we become fit	
		E	could go on for	Low int. probability

		E	could	Low int. probability
		E	would help the charity	High int. probability
	PRP		In the end, we need games	
	DD		We are not wasting	
	DC		but if we	
		E	we must think twice	High int. obligation

Year 5 – 2

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
	PCA		Are you tired of sitting …?	
	PRP		I think I found the solution	
	PCA		Did you know that ...?	
	DD		That's not a good way	
	PCA		is it?	
MA			go and get that toy box	
MA			go and sneak into your child's toy box	
		E	would be having fun while	High int. probability
	DD		not expensive in any	
MA			try and find	
	PRP		I believe toys and games	
	DD		You don't have to play	

	PRP		You can just play	
MA			play a game	
MA			is a saying that many people	
MA			is the best medicine."	
		E	Have you heard ... ?	
MA			it is true.	
MA			is a cure.	
MA			There are thousands of children	
MA			that leaves them in hospital	
MA			There are cures for	
	DC		but there is	
	PRP		really does help.	
	PRP		can do that.	
MA			is the best thing ever.	
MA			It is rewarding	
MA			makes them feel	
MA			go with toys	
	PRP		They really are the	

Year 7 - 1

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
		E	I would like	Medium int. inclination

	PRP		state my opinion	
	PRP		I consider to be	
		E	I would like	Medium int. inclination
	PRJ		because	
	PRP		I believe that	
		E	deserve to have money spent on them	High int. obligation
MA			there are many toys for sale	
MP			The abilities that these toys help form	
MA			are vitally important	
		E	it would be very hard	High int. probability
	PRP		I believe that toys and playthings	
MA			Many toys have things such as	
MA			As children grow; wondering and understanding	
MA			toys are fun	
MA			For most people in the world fun or amusement	
MA			And with happiness comes	
	PRJ		So	
	PCA		is it really that bad	

Year 7 – 2

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
	PRP		I believe the statement	
	DD		is completely incorrect!	
	PRP		Games and toys have been proven to	
MA			Toys improve happiness by	
	PRP		can be a stressful time	
	PRP		toys can give	
		E	may develop anxiety	Low int. probability
	PRP		can also be educational	
MA			They massively contribute to	
		E	will develop much slower	High int. probability
	PRP		has been scientifically proven for the child	
MA			let a child be active	
		E	may become the next	Low int. probability
	PRJ		All because they were	
		E	will make them lazy	High int. probability
MA			is always excellent.	
	PE		Recent studies have shown that	
MA			stop and think	
		E	will do to your child	High int. probability

		E	How will this affect ... ?	
MA			is encouraging and basically asking for them	
	PCA		Is that how you really want ... ?	
MA			Toys improve happiness, health	
MA			is mean, cruel and	

Year 9 - 1

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
MA			is spent on buying toys and games	
		AA	Some people believe too much	
MA			There are arguments for both	
MA			are excellent stimulants for the brain	
MA			they get you thinking	
	PCC		While there are good reasons	
		E	could be spent on	Low int. probability
MP			excessive amount of money we spend on games	
		E	could go to poorer	Low int. probability
	PRP		as shown here there are	
	PRP		can offer wonderful things	
	PRP		can make you feel	
MA			involve strategy and	

	DC		Even video games	
	PRP		can prove beneficial	
	PRJ		So therefore games	
	DD		aren't	
	DC		just for	
	PRP		can be constructive as well.	
MP			As countries like Australia live in luxury, places like	
	DC		live without even the bare	
		E	could make a world	Low int. probability
MP			to a family who needs the money much more than you do.	
MA			is to give it to vital	
		E	may keep you happy	Low int. probability
	DC		but allocating these	
		E	could look after you	Low int. probability
		E	will set you up for	High int. probability
	PRP		can give you a	
	PRJ		therefore a source of	
		E	may be fun	Low int. probability
	DC		but education is	

MA			are two sides to any	
	DD		is no exception.	
MA			are rewarding and mind	
	DC		but	
		E	may be more important	Low int. probability
MA			are pros and cons for both	
MA			have their reasons	
MA			both sides are legitimate.	

Year 9 – 2

M	HC	HE	Instantiation	Modality
MA			have been	
MP			going back to when children used to play with	
MA			are starting to become	
	DC		However, here are several	
MA			games are great	
MA			great for	
MA			brilliant for	
MA			crucial for	
MA			it is important	
	DD		are not the	
MA			are all major	

MA			Scrabble teaches	
MA			Snakes and ladders teaches	
MA			Chess teaches	
	PRP		In fact	
	DD		cannot say	
	PCA		can we?	
	PRJ		So it figures	
	DD		not spending too much	
	DD		Education is not	
	PRP		health proves quite a significant factor	
MA			are the major source of fun	
	PRP		In fact, toys and games	
	PCA		That's right	
	DC		even the Olympics!	
	PRP		can end up winning	
MA			this is a great way	
	PRJ		so	
	DD		not too much money	
MA			is another aspect of	
MA			families have a 'Saturday game night'.	
MA			This brings families	
MA			allows everyone to be happy	
MA			also makes sure that families are less	

	PCA		Would you want your family … ?	
	DD		Not too much money is	
MA			around the world stock toys.	
	PCA		How would they be able to survive … ?	
	PCA		Wouldn't these shops become … ?	
MP			For the sake of your child's happiness	
			spend money on toys and games	
		E	would cost more to renovate a whole	High int. probability
MA			are a major part of our lives and	
	DD		We wouldn't be who we are	
	DC		and even	
		AD	some might think	
MA			remember: Toys and games	
	DC		But most importantly	
MA			create happiness in EVERY aspect.	
	PRJ		Therefore	
	PRP		we can undoubtedly say	
	DD		NOT too much money	

Appendix 4. **Figurative language tables**

Key for Style analysis

Style analysis	
S	Scheme
T	Trope

Year 3 – 1

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Alliteration	S	definitely disagree
Anadiplosis	S	helpful for children. All children should
Parallelism	S	Scrabble and Monopoly
Parallelism	S	numeracy and literacy
Parallelism	S	jobs and the economy
Conduplicatio	S	support jobs and the economy. It can also support
Parallelism	S	Kmart and Coles
Metaphor	T	shut down
Hyperbole	T	would mean they will have to shut down completely
Parallelism	S	have family time and develop social skills
Metaphor	T	family time
Alliteration	S	social skills
Conduplicatio	S	have family time and develop social skills. Family time
Metaphor	T	Family time
Alliteration	S	Social skills will

Parallelism	S	get along well and become very, very nice
Metaphor	T	get along
Epizeuxis	S	very, very nice
Hyperbole	T	all children should deserve and receive toys and games from their parents or guardian
Parallelism	S	deserve and receive
Parallelism	S	parents or guardian

Year 3 – 2

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Assonance	S	my opinion I disagree, I
Anaphora	S	I am … I am
Metaphor	T	in favour
Hyperbole	T	this ridiculous concept
Hyperbole	T	everyone in the world liked toys
Metaphor	T	one point or another
Antithesis	S	it isn't wasted money it is spent money
Metaphor	T	wasted money
Hyperbole	T	the fun would be sucked out of the world and there would be no more entertainment
Parallelism	S	would be sucked out of the world and there would be no more entertainment
Metaphor	T	sucked out of the world
Anadiplosis	S	entertainment. Without entertainment

Hyperbole	T	would become a miserable and desolate place
Parallelism	S	miserable and desolate
Hyperbole	T	so tired because they spent all day
Conduplicatio	S	toys and games … Toys and games
Parallelism	S	relax and calm down
Hyperbole	T	everyone would be hyperactive and very tired
Parallelism	S	hyperactive and very tired
Parallelism	S	there would be no more fun, parents could get tired without them and they make people relax

Year 5 – 1

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Assonance	S	people say we are wasting
Metaphor	T	wasting too much money
Metaphor	T	not wasting money
Anadiplosis	S	we are not wasting money with them, but the money could
Antithesis	S	a kite is a toy, but when you fly it, it becomes much more
Anadiplosis	S	when you fly it, it becomes
Metaphor	T	becomes much more
Alliteration	S	much more
Parallelism	S	A kite would be flying with wind, so people will understand wind
Parallelism	S	but this makes us curious, so we learn about cyclones

Parallelism	S	but this even makes us more curious, so we learn about other natural disasters
Epistrophe	S	with wind, … understand wind, … do with wind
Anaphora	S	so people understand … so we learn about … so we learn about
Anaphora	S	but this … but this
Epistrophe	S	makes us curious, … makes us more curious
Climax	S	understand wind. … learn about cyclones. … learn about other natural disasters
Epizeuxis	S	go on and go on
Assonance	S	play games
Parallelism	S	Because of our movement, our fat burns into energy, so we become fit
Metaphor	T	burns into energy
Metaphor	T	could go on for the better
Conduplicatio	S	we are using money … We could use the money
Anadiplosis	S	to charities. It would help the charity
Parallelism	S	help people with disabilities and poor people
Alliteration	S	poor people
Anaphora	S	we … We are … but if we … we must
Metaphor	T	not wasting money
Metaphor	T	think twice

Year 5 – 2

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Hypophora	T	Are you tired of sitting at home on the couch with nothing to do? Well I think I found the solution
Parallelism	S	sitting at home on the couch with nothing to do
Rhetorical question	T	Did you know that many people around the world sit on their couch bored?
Rhetorical question	T	That's not a good way to spend your afternoons is it?
Metaphor	T	spend your afternoons
Anaphora	S	Well if you're … If you're … Even better, if you're
Parallelism	S	go and get that toy box and search for your favourite toy!
Polysyndeton	S	and … and
Parallelism	S	go and sneak into your child's toy box and play with your favourite doll
Polysyndeton	S	and … and
Epistrophe	S	favourite toy! … favourite doll
Parallelism	S	go outside and play fetch with your dog/child/animal
Parallelism	S	having fun while getting some exercise
Metaphor	T	getting some exercise
Hyperbole	T	not expensive in any store
Epanalepsis	S	If you find one that is try and find a cheaper one
Assonance	S	great fun for anyone
Procatalepsis	T	You don't have to play inside. You can just play them outside

Assonance	S	inside. … outside
Anaphora	S	You … You … If you
Parallelism	S	a game or a toy
Metaphor	T	"Laughter is the best medicine."
Hypophora	T	Have you heard of it? Well it is true
Metaphor	T	Laughter is a cure
Hyperbole	T	thousands of children around the world
Parallelism	S	cancer, heart failure, a rare disease or a serious illness
Metaphor	T	leaves them in hospital
Hyperbole	T	bedridden for months/years
Antithesis	S	There are cures for these illnesses but there is also one that really does help. Laughter
Alliteration	S	see a smile on a child who is sick
Hyperbole	T	the best thing ever
Parallelism	S	rewarding and makes they feel better
Parallelism	S	if you want something cheap, to see a smile on sick children's faces or want to be fit, not bored and happy
Alliteration	S	see a smile on sick children's faces
Metaphor	T	go with
Hyperbole	T	the best thing ever
Parallelism	S	you, me and everyone

Year 7 – 1

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Anaphora	S	I would like… I consider
Alliteration	S	first and foremost
Anaphora	S	I would like … I believe
Procatalepsis	T	I would like to argue against the statement "Too much money is spent on toys", because …
Parallelism	S	toys are good and deserve to have money spent on them
Parallelism	S	cognitive and motor skills
Assonance	S	abilities that these
Parallelism	S	motor and cognitive skills
Alliteration	S	live a normal life
Hyperbole	T	it would be hard to live a normal life
Anaphora	S	I believe that toys … Many toys
Metaphor	T	instil in kids
Alliteration	S	wonder about the world
Parallelism	S	handles, buttons and levers
Polysyndeton	S	and … and
Parallelism	S	help children to understand and wonder
Alliteration	S	wonder how things work
Conduplicatio	S	help children to … As children
Parallelism	S	wondering and understanding
Metaphor	T	As children grow

Metaphor	T	explore the world they live in
Parallelism	S	fun or amusement
Alliteration	S	amusement makes
Anadiplosis	S	happy. And with happiness
Polysyndeton	S	And … and
Hyperbole	T	with happiness comes the senses of self-worth, high self-esteem and general love of life
Alliteration	S	senses of self-worth
Alliteration	S	love of life
Climax	S	senses of self-worth, high self-esteem and general love of life
Parallelism	S	senses of self-worth, high self-esteem and general love of life
Parallelism	S	educate, develop and enrich
Antithesis	S	If toys help to educate, develop and enrich the lives of children; is it really that bad to spend some money on them?
Rhetorical question	T	If toys help to educate, develop and enrich the lives of children; is it really that bad to spend some money on them?

Year 7 – 2

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Hyperbole	T	is completely incorrect!
Conduplicatio	S	toys and games … Games and toys

Parallelism	S	to improve happiness, to be educational and to also let a child be active and physical
Conduplicatio	S	to improve happiness … Toys improve happiness
Metaphor	T	escape to a world
Parallelism	S	pressures of school, friends and health.
Metaphor	T	the escape from reality
Parallelism	S	develop anxiety, depression or other mental illnesses
Climax	S	may develop anxiety, depression or other mental illnesses
Hyperbole	T	They massively contribute
Parallelism	S	a young child's intellectual ability, their general brain development and a kid's social ability
Alliteration	S	given games
Antithesis	S	If a baby isn't given games and toys when it is still young, their brain will develop much slower than those of a child who has been given toys …
Hyperbole	T	will develop much slower
Parallelism	S	love, respect, the world and how to act in society
Hyperbole	T	they reach adulthood!
Parallelism	S	active and healthy
Conduplicatio	S	a child … If a kid
Epanalepsis	S	given a basketball … next basketball legend
Metaphor	T	basketball legend
Alliteration	S	such sporting
Hyperbole	T	will make them

Parallelism	S	lazy, unhealthy and inactive
Alliteration	S	type toys
Metaphor	T	in the open
Hyperbole	T	which is always excellent
Procatalepsis	T	don't want to spend the money because they saw "that gorgeous new bag I just had to have", stop and think
Irony	T	"that gorgeous new bag I just had to have"
Assonance	S	bag I just had to have
Parallelism	S	stop and think
Assonance	S	do to your child in the not-too-distant future
Hypophora	T	How will this affect them? Not letting children
Polysyndeton	S	and … and
Parallelism	S	is encouraging and basically asking
Hyperbole	T	is encouraging and basically asking
Parallelism	S	overweight, mentally unstable and behind in the classroom
Metaphor	T	behind in the classroom
Rhetorical question	T	Is this how you really want your child to turn out?
Metaphor	T	to turn out
Antithesis	S	Toys improve happiness, health and brain development. Not giving children toys is mean, cruel and just plain unfair!
Parallelism	S	happiness, health and brain development
Parallelism	S	mean, cruel and just plain unfair!

Hyperbole	T	mean, cruel and just plain unfair!

Year 9 – 1

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Hyperbole	T	lot of hard-earned money
Procatalepsis	T	Some people believe
Parallelism	S	knowledge and experience
Antithesis	S	While there are good reasons for toys and games, money could be spent on "more important" things
Hyperbole	T	excessive amount
Parallelism	S	go to poorer countries or even be allocated to things
Parallelism	S	health and education
Alliteration	S	So as shown
Assonance	S	So as shown
Anaphora	S	Toys and games … Games such as … Even video games … So therefore, games
Parallelism	S	make you feel happy as well as give your brain a workout
Metaphor	T	give your brain a workout
Parallelism	S	strategy and tactics
Metaphor	T	your next move
Antithesis	S	games aren't just for fun, they can be constructive as well
Alliteration	S	can be constructive

Antithesis	S	As countries like Australia live in luxury, places such as Timor live without even the bare necessities
Hyperbole	T	live in luxury
Alliteration	S	like Australia live in luxury
Hyperbole	T	live without even the bare necessities
Antithesis	S	Donating to causes such as this, instead of buying toys for yourself
Metaphor	T	a world of difference
Assonance	S	to a family who … than you do
Alliteration	S	money much more
Parallelism	S	health and education
Anaphora	S	Another good way to spend your money … Spending
Antithesis	S	Spending bucket-loads of cash on toys and games may keep you happy for now, but allocating these funds to your health and education could look after you in the long run
Metaphor	T	bucket-loads of cash
Hyperbole	T	Spending bucket-loads of cash
Parallelism	S	health and education
Metaphor	T	in the long run
Conduplicatio	S	education … Good education
Metaphor	T	set you up for life
Epistrophe	S	for life. … of life
Climax	S	can give you a job, therefore a source of income and a way of life

Antithesis	S	Toys may be fun, but education is vital
Anadiplosis	S	to any argument, this argument
Antithesis	S	Toys and games are rewarding and mind building, but there may be more important things to worry about
Parallelism	S	rewarding and mind building
Parallelism	S	pros and cons
Anadiplosis	S	both parties. Both sides
Anaphora	S	Both sides … both sides

Year 9 – 2

Style	S/T	Instantiation
Metaphor	T	been around
Parallelism	S	using loose stones and wooden blocks
Procatalepsis	T	people are starting to become worried that ... However, here
Parallelism	S	toys and games are great for our knowledge, great for maintaining our physical health, brilliant for keeping families together, and crucial for business in toy departments around the world
Climax	S	great for ... brilliant for ... crucial for
Anaphora	S	great for ... great for
Parallelism	S	Scrabble, Snakes and ladders, and Chess
Hyperbole	T	all major factors of educating
Parallelism	S	Scrabble teaches spelling, Snakes and ladders teaches probability, Chess teaches logic and strategy!
Parallelism	S	logic and strategy!

Hypophora	T	We cannot say that our children are spending too much money on education, can we? So it figures that we are not spending too much …
Antithesis	S	Education is not the only thing that improves the way we live; physical health proves quite a significant factor as well!
Hyperbole	T	a major source of fun
Parallelism	S	exercising or maintaining health
Anaphora	S	Toys and games ... In fact, toys and games
Climax	S	toys and games became so popular that people became professionals and went to competitions throughout the world
Alliteration	S	became so popular that people became professionals
Parallelism	S	is a great way to have fun while improving your fitness
Parallelism	S	board games and toys
Epanalepsis	S	Keeping families ... affect every family
Hyperbole	T	which affect every family
Anadiplosis	S	every family. Often families
Parallelism	S	they sit around a table and play a game
Assonance	S	table and play a game
Parallelism	S	Scrabble or Monopoly
Anaphora	S	This ... This
Parallelism	S	This brings families closer and allows everyone to be happy and relaxed
Parallelism	S	happy and relaxed
Hyperbole	T	also makes sure that

Alliteration	S	less likely
Hypophora	T	arguing and constantly fighting because there is nothing to bring the family together? Not too much money is spent on toys and games
Epanalepsis	S	want your family ... bring the family together?
Parallelism	S	arguing and constantly fighting
Assonance	S	arguing and constantly fighting because there is nothing to bring
Alliteration	S	Lastly, a large
Irony	T	How would they be able to survive without people buying their toys because too much money is spent on them already?
Personification	T	How would they be able to survive
Rhetorical question	T	Wouldn't these shops become bankrupt?
Hyperbole	T	think of the sadness your child might have because his favourite toy shop
Metaphor	T	shut down
Hyperbole	T	For the sake of your child's happiness
Metaphor	T	keep these shops alive
Antithesis	S	it would cost more money to renovate a whole department than to buy a toy!
Parallelism	S	our lives and our children
Epistrophe	S	children. ... children
Assonance	S	We wouldn't be who we
Polysyndeton	S	And ... and ... and
Procatalepsis	T	even though some might think; "They spend

Parallelism	S	on toys and games and not the important things in life
Conduplicatio	S	toys and games ... Toys and games
Parallelism	S	educational, sporty, a major part of uniting families, and fantastic for businesses
Hyperbole	T	they create happiness for your children in EVERY aspect
Parallelism	S	we can undoubtedly say, without hesitation